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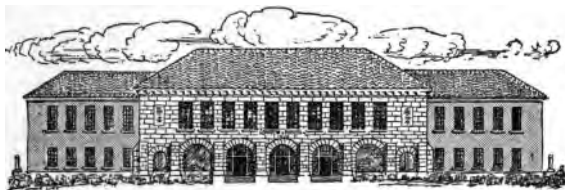
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FIRST SERIES
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR



BY GOULD BROWN

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NEW YORK



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BROWN'S SMALL GRAMMAR IMPROVED.

THE
FIRST LINES
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR;
BEING A
BRIEF ABSTRACT OF THE AUTHOR'S LARGER WORK,
THE
"INSTITUTES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR."

DESIGNED FOR YOUNG LEARNERS,

BY GOOLD BROWN,

AUTHOR OF THE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH GRAMMARS.

"Ne quis igitur tanquam parva fastidiat Grammatices elementa."—*Quintilian*.

"The rudiments of every language must be given as a task, not as an amusement."
—*Goldsmith*.

A NEW EDITION.

WITH EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

BY HENRY KIDDLE, A. M.,

SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY.

NEW YORK:

WILLIAM WOOD & CO., 27 GREAT JONES STREET.

1874.

ADVERTISEMENT.

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THE excellence of BROWN'S GRAMMARS, both as treatises and school-books, is very generally acknowledged. The repeated demands, however, for a more extended treatment of the "Analysis of Sentences" than was thought necessary by the author, has induced the publishers to issue a new edition, containing a full and progressive exposition of this department of grammar, and an entirely new series of exercises and examples, both for analysis and parsing, with observations and references to make them correspond with the body of the work. The exercises in Analysis, and the definitions necessary to explain them, have not been confined to the department of Syntax, as in most other grammatical text-books, but made to commence at a point where the intelligent progress of the pupil seems to demand such aid. In the present edition numerous corrections and alterations have been made, including new lists of Irregular and Redundant Verbs. There has also been added a chapter of Oral Exercises () intended as an introduction to the study of Grammar, which it is believed will be found serviceable to many teachers. No attempt has been made to change the system of grammar therein explained; because, while no change could possibly accommodate it to the views of all, the intelligent teacher can find no difficulty in varying it, in a few minor particulars, so as to make it correspond with his own views. With these alterations, the publishers hope that these works will be found more useful to the public, and a more valuable aid to teachers in imparting instruction in this important branch of education.

AUGUST, 1872.

Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1866, by

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In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the District of Massachusetts.

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ORIGINAL PREFACE.

THE following epitome contains a general outline of the principles of our language, as embodied and illustrated in "The Institutes of English Grammar." The definitions and explanations here given, are necessarily few and short. The writer has endeavoured to make them as clear as possible, and as copious as his limits would allow; but it is plainly impracticable to crowd into the compass of a work like this, all that is important in the grammar of our language. Those who desire a more complete elucidation of the subject, are invited to examine the author's larger work.

For the use of young learners, small treatises are generally preferred to large ones; because they are less expensive to parents, and better adapted to the taste and capacity of children. A small treatise on Grammar, like a small map of the world, may serve to give the learner a correct idea of the more prominent features of the subject; and to these his attention should at first be confined; for, without a pretty accurate knowledge of the general scheme, the particular details and nice distinctions of criticism can neither be understood nor remembered.

The only successful method of teaching grammar, is, to cause the principal definitions and rules to be committed thoroughly to memory, that they may ever afterwards be readily applied. And the pupil should be alternately exercised in learning small portions of his book, and then applying them in parsing, till the whole is rendered familiar.

The learner who shall thus go through this little work, will, it is imagined, acquire as good a knowledge of the subject as is to be derived from any of the abridgements used in elementary schools. And, if he is to pursue the study further, he will then be prepared to read with advantage the more copious illustrations and notes contained in the larger work, and to enter upon the various exercises adapted to its several parts.

This work is in no respect necessary to the other, as it contains the same definitions, and pursues the same plan. The use of it in the early stages of pupilage will preserve a more expensive book from being soiled and torn; and the scholar's advancement to the larger work may be expected to increase his pleasure and accelerate his progress in the study.

GOOLD BROWN.

PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION.

SINCE the completion and publication of my Grammar of English Grammars, it has frequently been suggested to me, that a new and critical revision of the Institutes and First Lines, to present them in a state of stricter conformity to that more elaborate work, and to obviate at the same time some remaining defects which had occasionally been noticed, might be the means of increasing the usefulness, and sustaining the reputation of these pretty widely known school-books. Such an improvement of the Institutes the author carefully prepared for the stereotypers during the last year. Having now performed, in like manner, and with proportionate pains, a new revision, or a sort of recasting, of the First Lines of English Grammar, he may perhaps, without lack of modesty, commend this little book to the managers of schools, as being, in his own estimation at least, the best and cheapest epitome of English Grammar yet offered to their choice.

GOULD BROWN.

LYNN, MASS., 1855.

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SUGGESTIONS FOR ORAL LESSONS.

[PRELIMINARY TO THE REGULAR STUDY OF THIS WORK.]

LESSON I.

Teacher (holding up any object, as a pen, a book, a pencil, etc., so that it may be seen by the pupils). What is the name of this object? What is the name of this? Of this? Of this?

Pupils (successively). Book. Slate. Pencil. Pen.

T. (*Writing the names upon the blackboard, or requiring the pupils to write them.*) Now read the names of the objects.

P. Book. Slate. Pencil. Pen.

T. What are these words?

P. The names of things.

T. Can we talk of things without knowing their names?

P. We cannot.

T. You see then how necessary it is that everything should have a name, and that we should have a correct knowledge of the names of things.

Now you may write the following:—

1. Five names of parts of your body.
2. Five names of parts of the chair.
3. Five names of things which you have seen.
4. Five names of flowers.
5. Five names of fruit.
6. Five names of places.
7. Five names of persons.

[Require the pupils in writing these names to commence each with a capital, and place a period after each word. Everything should be done with care and accuracy.]

LESSON II.

Teacher (holding up a book). What is the name of this?

Pupils. Book.

T. Can you say something about this book?

P. The book is new. The book is green. The book has covers. The book has leaves, etc., etc.

[In the same manner let the pupil say or write something about other things the names of which have been mentioned in Lesson I. In writing these statements care should be taken that they are correct as to capitals, spelling, and punctuation.]

The teacher now writes on the blackboard:—

The birds is pretty. Bees makes honey. My pen are bad. We was going home.

T. Read what I have written on the blackboard, and tell me what you think of it.

P. It is wrong.

T. Tell me what is wrong.

The pupils mention what is wrong in each statement, and correct it.

T. Now you may write on your slates these statements as you have corrected them.

T. Can you tell me why it is wrong to say, *The birds is pretty*,—why it should be, *The birds are pretty*?

P. We do not know.

T. That is true, children. You do not know this yet. Do you know what you must study to learn this?

P. Grammar.

T. What language do you speak?

P. The English language.

T. What grammar must you study, then?

P. English grammar.

T. What is English grammar, then?

LESSON III.

Teacher writes on the blackboard,

Birds fly.

T. Read what is written on the blackboard.

Now, when you say, *Birds fly*, of what do you speak?

P. *Birds.*

T. What do you say of *birds*?

P. They *fly*.

T. Writes on the blackboard, *Bees make honey.*

What is spoken of here?

P. *Bees.*

T. What is said of *bees*?

P. They *make honey*.

T. Writes on the blackboard the following, or similar sentences:—*William plays. John studies. Mary sews. Bears growl. Bees sting. Boys run.*

Tell me what are spoken of in these statements, and I will write them, one under the other, on the blackboard.

P. William		plays.
John		studies.
Mary		sews.
Bears		growl.
Bees		sting.
Boys		run.

T. Now tell me what is said of each, and I will write it by the side of the other on the blackboard.

[This exercise should be continued sufficiently long to impress the distinction designed to be taught clearly on the minds of the pupils. They should also be required to give such expressions, and separate them as above. It will be observed that this run sentence is not yet employed.]

T. Whatever is spoken of is called the *subject*.

Whatever is said of the subject is called the *predicate*.

Now write *predicates* for the following subjects:—

Trees. Flowers. Apples. Oranges. Henry. Sarah.

Write *subjects* for the following predicates :—

_____ is writing. _____ sing. _____ bloom. _____ burns.
 _____ fade. _____ sail _____ runs.

LESSON IV.

T. A subject and predicate joined together make *complete sense*.

[Writes on the blackboard, *The book*.]

Do these words make complete sense ?

P. No.

T. Why not ?

P. There is no predicate.

T. Is the sense complete in this :—*Runs*.

P. No ; because there is no subject.

T. Is the sense complete in these words, *On the table*.

P. No.

T. Why not ?

P. Because there is neither subject nor predicate.

T. Whenever words make complete sense they form what is called a *sentence*.

Define a sentence. [Text, page 20.]

T. Find the subject and the predicate in each of the following :—

Boys run. Do boys run? Boys, run.

T. Is the subject the same in each, then ?

Is the predicate the same in each ?

How do they differ, then ?

P. The first *affirms* ; the second *asks a question* ; the third *commands*.

[These answers will readily be obtained from the pupils by a little skill on the part of the teacher ; and nothing should be told the pupils which they may be made to discover themselves.]

T. Then you can join the same subject and predicate together so as to make different kinds of sentences, introducing a small word occasionally, such as *do* or *does*, which does not essentially vary the meaning.

Make questions from the sentences given in Lesson III.

Make commands from the same or similar sentences.

T. What name is given to each of these kinds of sentences?

[See text, page 38.]

LESSON V.

T. The names of persons, places, and things are called *nouns*.

What is a *noun*? [Text, page 19.]

T. Must the subject of a sentence be a noun?

[This may be considered a *thought-question*. Let, therefore, the pupils have time to consider it, and the exercise should be varied to suit the answers elicited.]

P. It must be a noun or something used for it.

T. Give an example of each.

P. *John* runs. *He* runs.

T. What word is used for a noun in these sentences?

P. *He*.

T. For what is it used?

P. *John*.

T. Give other examples of sentences containing words used for nouns.

T. Such words are called *pronouns*. *Pro* means *for*.

What is a *pronoun*? [See text, page 19.]

Write a list of all the pronouns you can think of.

Teacher writes on the blackboard:—

John gave John's book to John's brother William.

Are there any pronouns in this sentence?

P. No.

T. Can you use pronouns for any of the nouns?

P. Yes.

T. Read [or write] the sentence with as many pronouns as can be used.

P. *John gave his book to his brother William.*

- T. Is this sentence better than the other ?
P. Yes.
T. Why ?
P. Because the same noun is not repeated.
T. What is the use of pronouns then ?
P. To prevent repeating the same noun too often.
-

LESSON VI.

Teacher writes on the blackboard, *Birds fly. Charles is taught. He is.*

T. Tell me the *predicate* in each of these sentences. What does the predicate *fly* denote, or show ?

P. What the birds *do*.

T. Then it shows they *act* ; does it not ?

T. What is the predicate in the second sentence ?

P. *Is taught*.

T. Does this predicate show what Charles *does*, or what *is done to him* ?

P. What is done to him.

T. Then it shows that he is *acted upon* ; does it not ?

T. What is the predicate in the third sentence ?

P. *Is*.

T. Does the word *is* express action or being ?

P. *Being*.

T. That part of the predicate which signifies *to be, to act, or to be acted upon*, is called a verb.

What is the definition of a verb ? [Text, page 19.]

LESSON VII.

Teacher writes on the blackboard, *The bird sings. A bird can fly.*

T. What is the subject of the first sentence ?

P. *Bird*.

T. What is the subject of the second sentence ?

P. Bird.

T. When we say, "*the* bird," do we mean any bird, or some particular bird ?

P. Some particular bird.

T. What do we mean when we say, "a bird" ?

P. Any bird. No particular bird.

T. What is the use of these words *a* and *the*, then ? Do they change the meaning, or signification, of the nouns before which they are placed ?

P. They do.

T. They are said to *limit* it, because *the* bird, *the* flower, &c., do not have so wide a meaning as *a* bird, *a* flower, &c.

T. Is it right to say, *a* apple, *a* eye, *a* oak ?

P. No.

T. What should we say instead of these ?

P. An apple. An eye. An oak.

T. These little words, *a*, *an*, *the*, are called *articles*.

What is an article ? [Text, page 19.]

T. To what are articles added ?

P. To nouns.

Whenever words are added to other words they are called *ad-juncts*. [See Text, page 32.]

T. In the sentence, *the good boy learns*, what word besides the article, is added to the noun *boy* ?

P. The word *good*.

T. For what purpose is it added ?

P. To show what kind of a boy he is.

T. That is, to show *the quality*. Such words are called *adjectives*.

What is an *adjective* ? [Text, page 17.]

[The pupil is now prepared for Exercises I. and II. on page 30.]

LESSON VIII.

Teacher writes on the blackboard,

William, going home, lost his book.

T. What is the subject of this sentence?

P. *William.*

T. What is added to it?

P. *Going home.*

T. Of these two words which is an adjunct?

P. *Home* is an adjunct of *going*.

T. What does it show?

P. Where William was going.

T. What does the word *going* signify?

P. *Action.*

T. Then it is like what?

P. A *verb*.

T. To what is it added?

P. To the noun *William*.

T. Then it is like what else, besides a verb?

P. An adjective.

T. It is, on this account, said to *participate*, or partake of, the properties of a verb and an adjective, and is therefore called a *participle*.

Some participles participate the properties of a *verb* and a *noun*.

What is a participle? [Text, page 19.]

LESSON IX.

Teacher writes on the blackboard. *The horse runs swiftly.*

T. What is the subject of this sentence?

P. *Horse.*

T. What is added to it?

P. The article *the*.

T. What is the verb or predicate of this sentence ?

P. *Runs.*

T. What is added to it ?

P. *Swiftly.*

T. What does the word *swiftly* show ?

P. *How* the horse runs.

T. Then it expresses *manner* ; does it not ?

T. [Writes on the blackboard, *The horse runs very swiftly.*]

What word is added to *swiftly* in this sentence ?

P. *Very.*

T. What does it show ?

P. *How* swiftly the horse runs.

T. Then it expresses *degree* ; does it not ?

What word expresses degree in this sentence, *John is an exceedingly bright scholar* ?

P. *Exceedingly.*

T. To what word is it added ?

P. To *bright*,—an adjective.

T. Such words are called *adverbs*. They are added to *verbs*, *participles*, *adjectives*, or *other adverbs*.

What is an adverb ? [Text, page 19.]

Write a sentence containing an adverb of manner.

Write one containing an adverb of degree.

LESSON X.

Teacher writes on the blackboard, *John is a good scholar. William is a good scholar. Charles is a good scholar.*

T. How many sentences have I written on the blackboard ?
Read them.

In what respect are ~~they~~ alike ?

P. The predicate is the same in each.

T. Can you join them together so as to have only one predicate ?

P. John, William, and Charles are good scholars.

T. What have you joined—the subjects or the predicates?

P. The subjects.

T. What word is used to join them?

P. The word *and*.

Teacher writes on the blackboard, *Mary is diligent. Her sister is idle.*

T. Read the sentences I have written.

Can you join them together as you joined the other sentences?

P. No.

T. Why not?

P. Because they have different subjects and predicates.

T. Can you join them together at all?

P. Yes;—*Mary is diligent, but her sister is idle.*

T. What word have you used to connect these sentences?

P. *But*.

T. Words used to connect words or sentences are called *conjunctions*.

What is a conjunction? [Text, page 19.]

Write a sentence containing words connected by a conjunction.

Write two sentences, and connect them by a conjunction.

LESSON XI.

Teacher writes on the blackboard, *The bird flew over the tree. The boy climbed up the tree.*

T. What is the subject in each of these sentences?

P. *Bird—Boy.*

T. What is the predicate?

P. *Flew—Climbed.*

T. To what is the action expressed in these verbs related?

P. To the *tree*.

T. Is the relation the same in each sentence?

P. No; ~~it~~ is *over* the tree in one, and *up* the tree in the other.

T. What words express this relation ?

F. *Over* and *up*.

T. Words expressing relation in this manner are called *prepositions*.

What is a preposition ? [Text, page 20.]

Mention all the prepositions you can think of.

Write a sentence containing any of those prepositions.

LESSON XII.

Teacher writes on the blackboard, *Oh! how beautiful is the sky!*
The sky is beautiful.

T. What is the difference in the meaning of these sentences ?

P. There is no difference.

T. Do you not think that one means more than the other ?

P. The first perhaps.

T. Yes ; how does it mean more ?

P. It indicates emotion on the part of the speaker ;
but the fact expressed is the same.

T. That is true. What word is used to indicate this emotion ?

P. *Oh!*

T. What point is placed after it ?

P. An exclamation point.

What may such sentences be called ?

P. Exclamatory sentences.

T. Words used to indicate strong emotion are called *interjections*.

What is an interjection ? [Text, page 20.]

Write sentences containing interjections,

T. Do all words in a sentence perform the same office ?

P. No.

T. Tell me what office some perform ?

P. Some are *names* of things ; some express *action* ;
some, *quality* ; others, *relation* ; and some are used to
connect, etc., etc.

T. On this account words have been arranged in classes, called *Parts of Speech*.

What are the parts of speech in English? [Text, page 18.]

[The pupil is now prepared for Exercise III., on page 21, and for the exercises on pp. 29 and 33. Similar lessons on the classification of the parts of speech, their modification, etc., should precede or accompany the different sections, in order to develop in the mind of the pupil the requisite ideas of the various subjects proposed, before formal statements or brief definitions. The latter are very apt to be committed to memory by rote, and of course without any exercise of intelligence on the part of the pupil. The above lessons, being designed only to suggest a method of introducing the subject of Grammar to the young mind, are necessarily brief; the teacher will, however, find no difficulty in expanding them at certain points, wherever the circumstances may seem to require it.]

THE
FIRST LINES
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking, reading, and writing the English language correctly.

It is divided into four parts; namely, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody. *

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement, of words in sentences.

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification.

PART I.
ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

CHAPTER I.—OF LETTERS

A *Letter* is an alphabetic mark, or character, commonly representing some elementary sound of a word.

An elementary sound of a word, is a simple or primary sound of the human voice, used in speaking.

The letters in the English alphabet are twenty-six; *A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.*

Observation 1.—The names of the letters, as now commonly spoken and written in English, are *A, Bee, Cee, Dee, E, Eff, Gee, Aitch, I, Jay, Kay, Ell, Em, En, O, Pee, Kue, Ar, Ess, Tee, U, Vee, Double-u, Ex, Wy, Zee.*

Obs. 2.—These names, like those of the days of the week, though they partake the nature of nouns proper, may form regular plurals; thus, *Aes, Bees, Cees, Dees, Ees, Effs, Gees, Aitches, Ies, Jays, Kays, Ells, Ems, Ens, Oes, Pees, Kues, Ars, Esses, Tees, Ues, Vees, Double-ues, Exes, Wies, Zees.*

Obs. 3.—Unlike the other letters, all the principal vowels—whether capitals, as *A, E, I, O, U*, or small forms, as *a, e, i, o, u*—name themselves; each of them, as the name of itself, having the long, primary sound with which it usually forms an accented syllable; as in *Abel, Enoch, Isaac, Obed, Urin*. The other letters, though they never actually or fully form their own names, are often used in lieu of them, and are read as the words for which they are assumed; as, *O*, for *Cee*; *F*, for *Eff*; *J*, for *Jay*; *H*, for *Aitch*.

CLASSES OF THE LETTERS.

The letters are divided into two general classes, *vowels* and *consonants*.

A *vowel* is a letter which forms a perfect sound, when uttered alone; as, *a, e, o.*

A *consonant* is a letter which cannot be perfectly uttered till joined to a vowel; as, *b, c, d.*

The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w*, and *y*. All the other letters are consonants.

W or *y* is called a consonant when it precedes a vowel heard in the same syllable; as in *wine, twine, whine, ye, yet, youth*: in all other cases, these letters are vowels; as in *newly, dewy, eye-brow.*

Obs. 1.—The consonants are divided into *mutes* and *semivowels*.

Obs. 2.—A *mute* is a consonant which cannot be sounded at all without a vowel. The mutes are *b, d, k, p, q, t,* and *c* and *g* hard.

Obs. 3.—A *semivowel* is a consonant which can be imperfectly sounded without a vowel. The semivowels are *f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, w, x, y, z,* and *c* and *g* soft. Of these, *l, m, n,* and *r,* are termed *liquids*, on account of the fluency of their sounds.

FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

In the English language, the Roman characters are generally employed; sometimes the *Italic*; and occasionally the *Old English*. In *writing*, we use the *Script*.

The letters have severally two forms, by which they are distinguished as *capitals* and *small letters*.

Small letters constitute the body of every work; and capitals are used for the sake of eminence and distinction.

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITALS.

RULE I.—TITLES OF BOOKS.

The titles of books, and the heads of their principal divisions, should be printed in capitals. When books are merely mentioned, the principal words in their titles begin with capitals, and the other letters are small; as, "Pope's Essay on Man."

RULE II.—FIRST WORDS.

The first word of every distinct sentence, or of any clause separately numbered or paragraphed, should begin with a capital.

RULE III.—NAMES OF THE DEITY.

All names of the Deity should begin with capitals; as, *God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being.*

RULE IV.—PROPER NAMES.

Titles of office or honour, and proper names of every description, should begin with capitals; as, *Chief Justice Hale, William, London, the Park, the Albion, the Spectator, the Thames.*

RULE V.—OBJECTS PERSONIFIED.

The name of an object personified, when it conveys an idea strictly individual, should begin with a capital; as,

"Come, gentle *Spring*, ethereal mildness, come."

RULE VI.—WORDS DERIVED.

Words derived from proper names of persons or places, should begin with capitals; as, *Newtonian*, *Grecian*, *Roman*.

RULE VII.—I AND O.

The words *I* and *O* should always be capitals; as, "Out of the depths have *I* cried unto thee, *O* Lord."—*Psalms*.

RULE VIII.—POETRY.

Every line in poetry, except what is regarded as making but one verse with the line preceding, should begin with a capital; as,

"Our sons their fathers' failing language see,
And such as Chaucer is, shall Dryden be."—*Pope*.

RULE IX.—EXAMPLES.

A full example, a distinct speech, or a direct quotation, should begin with a capital; as, "Remember this maxim: 'Know thyself.'"—"Virgil says, 'Labour conquers all things.'"

RULE X.—CHIEF WORDS.

Other words of particular importance, and such as denote the principal subject of discourse, may be distinguished by capitals. Proper names frequently have capitals throughout.

CHAPTER II.—OF SYLLABLES.

A *Syllable* is one or more letters pronounced in one sound, and is either a word or a part of a word; as, *a*, *an*, *ant*.

In every word there are as many syllables as there are distinct sounds; as, *gram-ma-ri-an*.

A word of one syllable is called a *monosyllable*; a word of two syllables, a *dissyllable*; a word of three syllables, a *trissyllable*; and a word of four or more syllables, a *polysyllable*.

DIPHTHONGS AND TRIPHTHONGS.

A *diphthong* is two vowels joined in one syllable; as, *ea* in *beat*, *ou* in *sound*.

A *proper diphthong* is a diphthong in which both the vowels are sounded; as, *oi* in *voice*.

An *improper diphthong* is a diphthong in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, *oa* in *loaf*.

A *triphthong* is three vowels joined in one syllable; as, *eau* in *beau*, *iew* in *view*.

A *proper triphthong* is a triphthong in which all the vowels are sounded; as, *uoy* in *buoy*.

An *improper triphthong* is a triphthong in which only one or two of the vowels are sounded; as, *eau* in *beauty*.

Obs. 1.—The diphthongs in English are twenty-nine. Some of them, being variously sounded, may be either proper or improper.

Obs. 2.—The *proper* diphthongs are thirteen; *ay—ia, ie, io—oi, ou, ow, oy—ua, ue, ui, wo, wy*.

Obs. 3.—The *improper* diphthongs are twenty-six; *aa, ae, ai, ao, au, av, ay—ea, ee, ei, eo, eu, ew, ey—ie—oa, oe, oi, oo, ou, ow—ua, ue, ui, wo, wy*.

Obs. 4.—The only *proper* triphthong is *uoy*, given in the example above; unless *uoi*, as in *quoit*, may be added.

Obs. 5.—The *improper* triphthongs are sixteen; *awe, aye—eau, cou, ewe, eye—ieu, iew, iou—oeu, owe—uai, uaw, uay, uea, uee*.

Obs. 6.—In dividing words into syllables, we are to be directed chiefly by the ear; it may however be proper to observe, as far as practicable, the following rules:

I. Consonants should generally be joined to the vowels or diphthongs which they modify in utterance; as, *ap-os-tol-i-cal*.

II. Two vowels coming together, if they make not a diphthong, must be parted in dividing the syllables; as, *a-e-ri-al*.

III. Derivative and grammatical terminations should generally be separated from the radical words to which they have been added; as, *harm-less, great-ly, connect-ed*.

IV. Prefixes, in general, form separate syllables; as, *mis-place, out-ride, up-lift*: but if their own primitive meaning be disregarded, the case may be otherwise; thus, *re-create* and *re-creates* are words of different import.

V. Compounds, when divided, should be divided into the simple words which compose them; as, *no-where*.

VI. At the end of a line, a word may be divided, if necessary; but a syllable must never be broken.

CHAPTER III.—OF WORDS.

A *Word* is one or more syllables spoken or written as the sign of some idea, or of some manner of thought.

SPECIES AND FIGURE OF WORDS.

Words are distinguished as *primitive* or *deriv-*

ative, and as *simple* or *compound*. The former division is called their *species*; the latter, their *figure*.

A *primitive* word is one that is not formed from any simpler word in the language; as, *harm*, *great*, *connect*.

A *derivative* word is one that is formed from some simpler word in the language; as, *harmless*, *greatly*, *connected*.

A *simple* word is one that is not compounded, not composed of other words; as, *watch*, *man*.

A *compound* word is one that is composed of two or more simple words; as, *watchman*, *nevertheless*.

Obs. 1.—Permanent compounds are consolidated; as, *bookseller*, *schoolmaster*: others, which may be called temporary compounds, are formed by the hyphen; as, *glass-house*, *negro-merchant*.

Obs. 2.—The compounding of words produces new ones, which are not always good; and the sundering of just compounds produces solecisms, or ungrammatical phrases. Hence the figure of words should be subjected to rules. To supply so obvious a want, I have framed the following hints:

I. **COMPOUNDS.**—Words regularly or analogically united, and commonly known as compounds, should never be needlessly broken apart.

II. **SIMPLES.**—When the simple words would only form a regular phrase, of the same meaning, the compounding of any of them ought to be avoided.

III. **THE SENSE.**—Words otherwise liable to be misunderstood, must be joined together, or written separately, as the sense and construction may happen to require.

IV. **ELLIPSES.**—When two or more compounds are connected in one sentence, none of them should be split to make an ellipsis of half a word.

V. **THE HYPHEN.**—When the parts of a compound do not fully coalesce, as *to-day*, *to-night*, *to-morrow*; or when each retains its original accent, so that the compound has more than one, or one that is movable, as *first-born*, *hanger-on*, *laughter-loving*, the hyphen should be inserted between them.

VI. **NO HYPHEN.**—When a compound has but one accented syllable in pronunciation, as *watchword*, *statesman*, *gentleman*, and the parts are such as admit of a complete coalescence, no hyphen should be inserted between them.

CHAPTER IV.—OF SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

Obs.—This important art is to be acquired rather by means of the spelling-book or dictionary, and by observation in reading, than by the study of written rules. The orthography of our language is attended with much uncertainty and perplexity: many words are variously spelled by the best scholars, and many others are not usually written according to the analogy of similar words. But to be ignorant of the orthography of such words as are uniformly spelled and frequently used, is justly considered disgraceful. The following rules may prevent some embarrassment, and thus be of service to the learner.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

RULE I.—FINAL F, L, OR S.

Monosyllables ending in *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant: as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass*; except three in *f*—*clef*, *if*, *of*; four in *l*—*bul*, *nul*, *sal*, *sol*; and eleven in *s*—*as*, *gas*, *has*, *was*, *yes*, *is*, *his*, *this*, *us*, *thus*, *pus*.

RULE II.—OTHER FINALS.

Words ending in any other consonant than *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter; except *abb*, *ebb*, *add*, *odd*, *egg*, *inn*, *err*, *burr*, *purrr*, *yarr*, *butt*, *buzz*, *fuzz*, and some proper names.

RULE III.—DOUBLING.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, when they end with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, or by a vowel after *qu*, double their final consonant before an additional syllable that begins with a vowel: as, *rob*, *robber*; *permit*, *permitting*; *acquit*, *acquittal*, *acquitting*.

EXCEPTION.—*X* final, being equivalent to *ks*, is never doubled.

RULE IV.—No DOUBLING.

A final consonant, when it is not preceded by a single vowel, or when the accent is not on the last syllable, should remain single before an additional syllable: as, *toil*, *toiling*; *visit*, *visited*; *general*, *generalize*.

Exc.—But *l* and *s* final are often doubled, (though perhaps improperly,) when the last syllable is not accented: as, *travel*, *travelled*; *bias*, *biassed*.

RULE V.—RETAINING.

Words ending with any double letter, preserve it double before

any additional termination not beginning with the same letter; as in the following derivatives; *seeing, blissful, oddly, hilly, stiffness, illness, smallness, carelessness, agreement, agreeable.*

Exc.—The irregular words, *fled, sold, told, dwelt, spelt, spilt, shalt, wilt, blest, past*, and the derivatives from the word *pontiff*, are exceptions to this rule.

RULE VI.—FINAL E.

The final *e* mute of a primitive word is generally omitted before an additional termination beginning with a vowel: as, *rate, ratable; force, forcible; rave, raving; eye, eying.*

Exc.—Words ending in *ce* or *ge* retain the *e* before *able* or *ous*, to preserve the soft sound of *c* and *g*: as, *peace, peaceable; change, changeable; outrage, outrageous.*

RULE VII.—FINAL E.

The final *e* of a primitive word is generally retained before an additional termination beginning with a consonant: as, *pale, paleness; lodge, lodgement.*

Exc.—When the *e* is preceded by a vowel, it is sometimes omitted; as, *true, truly; awe, awful*: and sometimes retained; as, *rue, rueful; shoe, shoeless.*

RULE VIII.—FINAL Y.

The final *y* of a primitive word, when preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i* before an additional termination: as, *merry, merrier, merriest, merrily, merriment; pity, pitied, pities, pitiest, pitiless, pitiful, pitiable.*

Exc.—Before *ing*, *y* is retained, to prevent the doubling of *i*; as *pity, pitying*. Words ending in *ie*, dropping the *e* by RULE VI, change *i* into *y*, for the same reason; as, *die, dying.*

Obs.—When a vowel precedes, *y* should not be changed; as, *day, days; valley, valleys; money, moneys; monkey, monkeys.*

RULE IX.—COMPOUNDS.

Compounds generally retain the orthography of the simple words which compose them; as, *hereof, wherein, horseman, recall, uphill, shellfish.*

Exc.—In permanent compounds, the words *full* and *all* drop one *l*; as, *handful, careful, always, withal*: in others, they retain both; as, *full-eyed, all-wise, save-all*.

Obs.—Other words ending in *ll* sometimes improperly drop one *l*, when *ta* or *n* into composition, as *miscal, downhill*. This excision is reprehensible, because it is contrary to general analogy, and because both letters are necessary to preserve the sound, and show the derivation of the compound. Where is the consistency of writing *recall, misal—inthrall, bethral—windfall, downfal—laystall, thumbstal—waterfall, overfal—molehill, dunghil—windmill, twibil—clodpoll, enrol*?—[See Johnson's Dictionary, first American edition 4to.]

CHAPTER V.—EXERCISES.

EXERCISE I.—*Divide the following words into their proper syllables.*

Vengeance, permission, whosoever, divisible, recollection, rational, premeditate, reflected, inflexibility, extraordinary, unnecessary, preparation, æriform, aqueduct, iniquity, triennial, conscientiousness, ratio, appreciate, impressible, archipelago, resurrection, abecedarian, simultaneously, prejudice, pronunciation, propitious, catalogue, polysyllable, miscellaneous, omniscience, recommendation.

EXERCISE II.—*State from what primitive word each of the following derivatives is formed, and according to which of the Rules for Spelling.*

Compelled, skillful, holiday, happiness, courageous, rebellion, traveler, believing, achievement, spoonful, galloping, beautiful, deluder, salable, changeable, narrator, juiciness, improvement, loveliness, beggar, spotted, preference, preferred, variable, conveyance, thralldom, agreeable, deriving, shoeing, business, icicle, impel, beginner, manumitting.

EXERCISE III.—*Form as many derivatives as possible from the following primitives.*

Excel, visit, commit, worship, bury, beauty, travel, judge, sincere, refer, vary, agree, full, delay, busy, tie, differ, occur, expel, benefit, duty, plan, despoil, narrate, beg, peril, receive, instruct, assemble, pity, define, mimic, compose, form, value, charge, animate, combat, acquit, abridge, critic, allege, merchant, tyrant, fancy, dry, omit, achieve, whole, compel, tall, debt, write, cancel, rob, spell.

EXERCISE IV.—*Correct the errors in the following words according to the Rules for Spelling.*

Seof, repell, til, untill, rarity, chimnies, crosness, outstriped, pasport, blisful, slothfull, merryness, instiling, refered, prefferable, referible, duely, welspent, benefitted, improveing, defering, controll, controlable, dulness, forgetting, bigotted, untieing, moveable, pontificate, forceible, awful, annul, handfull, al-powerfull, fruitfullness, miscal, wherin, perillous, fulfil, appall, uphil.

EXERCISE V.—*Analyze the following words, and state to which of the Rules for Spelling they are exceptions.*

Excellence, judgment, bounteous, gaiety, said, egg, yes, argument, wholly, abridgment, traveller, gaseous, unpaid, crystalline, cancelling, development, mutinous, denying, kidnapping, daily, charitable, plenteous, babyhood, truly, this, add, unparalleled, biased, dryly, awful, welfare, wherefore, chilblain, welcome, Christmas.

EXERCISE VI.—*Copy the following sentences, and insert or omit capital letters according to the Rules for Capitals.*

Goldsmith's "deserted village" is a beautiful poem. The lord is a great god above all Gods. The city of london is situated on the river Thames. The hudson river was discovered by Henry hudson. the roman empire was divided into two portions at the death of theodosius the great, the empire of the West being governed by Honorius and that of the east, by arcadius. O liberty! o sound once delightful to every roman ear! epimanondas, the theban General, was remarkable for his love of Truth, he never told a lie even in Jest. o grave! where is thy victory? And god spake unto moyses, and said unto him, i am the lord. Pope says, "order is heaven's first law." The "lady of the lake" was written by sir walter scott, who was also the Author of the waverley novels.

get thee back, sorrow, get thee back!
 why should i weep while i am young?
 i have not piped—i have not danced—
 my morning Songs i have not sung.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

CHAPTER I.—THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The Parts of Speech, or sorts of words, in English, are ten; namely, the Article, the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Participle, the Adverb, the Conjunction, the Preposition, and the Interjection.

1. THE ARTICLE:

An Article is the word *the*, *an*, or *a*, which we put before nouns to limit their signification: as, *the* air, *the* stars; *an* island, *a* ship.

2. THE NOUN.

A Noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned: as, *George, York, man, apple, truth.*

3. THE ADJECTIVE.

An Adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality: as, *A wise man; a new book.*—You *two* are *diligent*.

4. THE PRONOUN.

A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun: as, The boy loves *his* book; *he* has long lessons, and *he* learns *them* well.

5. THE VERB.

A Verb is a word that signifies *to be, to act, or to be acted upon*: as, *I am, I rule, I am ruled; I love, thou lovest, he loves.*

6. THE PARTICIPLE.

A Participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; and is generally formed by adding *ing, d, or ed*, to the verb: thus, from the verb *rule* are formed three participles, two simple and one compound; as, 1. *ruling*, 2. *ruled*, 3. *having ruled*.

7. THE ADVERB.

An Adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner: as, They are *now here*, studying *very diligently*.

8. THE CONJUNCTION.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the de-

pendence of the terms so connected: as, "Thou *and* he are happy, *because* you are good."—*Mur.*

9. THE PREPOSITION.

A Preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun: as, The paper lies *before* me *on* the desk.

10. THE INTERJECTION.

An Interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind: as, *Oh! alas! ah! poh! pshaw!*

PARSING.

Parsing is the resolving or explaining of a sentence according to the definitions and rules of grammar.

A *sentence* is an assemblage of words, making complete sense; as, "Beauty fades."—"Reward sweetens labor."

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

EXERCISE I.—*Point out, in the following sentences, the verb, the noun, and the article, and parse each as in the example.*

EXAMPLE 1.—"The man walks."

1. *Walks* is the verb, because it signifies action.
2. *Man* is the noun, because it is the name of a person.
3. *The* is the article, because it limits the signification of the noun, *man*.

The sun shines. William reads. The fire burns. The ship sailed. John studies grammar. The boy told an untruth. The horse is a quadruped. *A* is an article. The flowers bloom. Ducks swim. Does the sun shine? Birds build nests. Columbus discovered America. Hawks kill chickens. Cain slew Abel. The sun ripens the fruit.

EXERCISE II.—*Point out the verb, the noun, the article, the adjective, and the pronoun, and parse each as in the first and second examples.*

EXAMPLE 2.—“An idle scholar disgraces his teacher.”

4. *Idle* is the adjective, because it expresses the quality of *scholar*.
5. *His* is the pronoun, because it is used instead of the noun *scholar*.

A good boy obeys his parents. Sarah learns her lessons. His-
tory is a useful study. A disobedient boy disgraces his parents.
The earth is a round body. Boys are heedless. They disregard
their teachers. Wisdom is the principal thing. A noble mind
scorns a mean action. Washington was a true patriot. A good
book is an interesting companion. William found the money which
his careless brother lost. A friend should bear a friend's infirmi-
ties. A faithful servant studies his master's interest. A cheerful
temper is a great blessing.

EXERCISE III.—*Distinguish the parts of speech in the following sen-
tences, and parse each as in the first, second, and third examples.*

EXAMPLE 3.—“The good scholar attends diligently and carefully
to his lessons.”

6. *Diligently* and *carefully* are adverbs, because they are added to the verb *attend*, and express manner.
7. *And* is a conjunction, because it connects the adverbs *diligently* and *carefully*.
8. *To* is a preposition, because it expresses the relation of the verb *attend* to the noun *lessons*.

John and Peter are good scholars. James is a dishonest and
idle lad. The rose is a beautiful and fragrant flower. Prosperity
gains friends, and adversity tries them. William studies diligently,
but Charles is idle. A peach, an apple, a pear, or an orange is
very delicious. The eagle has a strong and piercing eye. Candor,
sincerity, and truth are amiable qualities. The horse runs swiftly.
Cæsar was a very famous general. He conquered many nations;
and invaded the island of Britain. Hark! the trumpet sounds.
Alas! how unfortunate he is! The industrious and attentive
scholar learns with great ease and rapidity. Virtuous youth grad-
ually brings forward accomplished and flourishing manhood. Sloth
enfeebles equally the bodily and the mental powers. The shortest
life is long, if it leads to a better.

EXERCISE IV.—*State what part of speech is required in each of the
following sentences, fill the blanks and parse each word.*

The man walks _____. John writes _____. Quicksilver is
bright _____ shining. _____ boy is amiable _____ talented;
_____ he does not study. _____ is beautiful _____ fragrant.

any additional termination not beginning with the same letter; as in the following derivatives; *seeing, blissful, oddly, hilly, stiffness, illness, smallness, carelessness, agreement, agreeable.*

Exc.—The irregular words, *fled, sold, told, dwelt, spelt, spilt, shalt, wilt, blest, past*, and the derivatives from the word *pontiff*, are exceptions to this rule.

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Exc.—Before *ing*, *y* is retained, to prevent the doubling of *i*; as *pity, pitying*. Words ending in *ie*, dropping the *e* by RULE VI, change *i* into *y*, for the same reason; as, *die, dying.*

Obs.—When a vowel precedes, *y* should not be changed; as, *day, days; valley, valleys; money, moneys; monkey, monkeys.*

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EXERCISE II.—*State from what primitive word each of the following derivatives is formed, and according to which of the Rules for Spelling.*

Compelled, skillful, holiday, happiness, courageous, rebellion, traveler, believing, achievement, spoonful, galloping, beautiful, deluder, salable, changeable, narrator, juiciness, improvement, loveliness, beggar, spotted, preference, preferred, variable, conveyance, thralldom, agreeable, deriving, shoeing, business, icicle, impel, beginner, manumitting.

EXERCISE III.—*Form as many derivatives as possible from the following primitives.*

Excel, visit, commit, worship, bury, beauty, travel, judge, sincere, refer, vary, agree, full, delay, busy, tie, differ, occur, expel, benefit, duty, plan, despoil, narrate, beg, peril, receive, instruct, assemble, pity, define, mimic, compose, form, value, charge, animate, combat, acquit, abridge, critic, allege, merchant, tyrant, fancy, dry, omit, achieve, whole, compel, tall, debt, write, cancel, rob, spell.

EXERCISE IV.—*Correct the errors in the following words according to the Rules for Spelling.*

Seof, repell, til, untill, rarity, chimnies, crosness, outstriped, pasport, blisful, slothfull, merryness, instiling, refered, preferrable, referible, duely, welspent, benefitted, improveing, defering, controll, controlable, dulness, forgeting, bigotted, untieing, moveable, pontificate, forceible, awful, annul, handfull, al-powerfull, fruitfulness, miscal, wherin, perillous, fulfil, appall, uphil.

EXERCISE V.—*Analyze the following words, and state to which of the Rules for Spelling they are exceptions.*

Excellence, judgment, bounteous, gaiety, said, egg, yes, argument, wholly, abridgment, traveller, gaseous, unpaid, crystalline, cancelling, development, mutinous, denying, kidnapping, daily, charitable, plenteous, babyhood, truly, this, add, unparalleled, biased, dryly, awful, welfare, wherefore, chilblain, welcome, Christmas.

EXERCISE VI.—*Copy the following sentences, and insert or omit capital letters according to the Rules for Capitals.*

Goldsmith's "deserted village" is a beautiful poem. The lord is a great god above all Gods. The city of london is situated on the river Thames. The hudson river was discovered by Henry hudson. the roman empire was divided into two portions at the death of theodosius the great, the empire of the West being governed by Honorius and that of the east, by arcadius. O liberty! o sound once delightful to every roman ear! epimanondas, the theban General, was remarkable for his love of Truth, he never told a lie even in Jest. o grave! where is thy victory? And god spake unto mooses, and said unto him, i am the lord. Pope says, "order is heaven's first law." The "lady of the lake" was written by sir walter scott, who was also the Author of the waverley novels.

get thee back, sorrow, get thee back!

why should i weep while i am young?

i have not piped—i have not danced—

my morning Songs i have not sung.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

CHAPTER I.—THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The Parts of Speech, or sorts of words, in English, are ten; namely, the Article, the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Participle, the Adverb, the Conjunction, the Preposition, and the Interjection.

1. THE ARTICLE.

An Article is the word *the*, *an*, or *a*, which we put before nouns to limit their signification: *as, the air, the stars; an island, a ship.*

2. THE NOUN.

A Noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned: as, *George, York, man, apple, truth.*

3. THE ADJECTIVE.

An Adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality: as, *A wise man; a new book.—You two are diligent.*

4. THE PRONOUN.

A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun: as, *The boy loves his book; he has long lessons, and he learns them well.*

5. THE VERB.

A Verb is a word that signifies *to be, to act,* or *to be acted upon*: as, *I am, I rule, I am ruled; I love, thou lovest, he loves.*

6. THE PARTICIPLE.

A Participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; and is generally formed by adding *ing, d,* or *ed,* to the verb: thus, from the verb *rule* are formed three participles, two simple and one compound; as, 1. *ruling,* 2. *ruled,* 3. *having ruled.*

7. THE ADVERB.

An Adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner: as, *They are now here, studying very diligently.*

8. THE CONJUNCTION.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the de-

pendence of the terms so connected: as, "Thou *and* he are happy, *because* you are good."—*Mur.*

9. THE PREPOSITION.

A Preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun: as, The paper lies *before* me *on* the desk.

10. THE INTERJECTION.

An Interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind: as, *Oh! alas! ah! poh! pshaw!*

PARSING.

Parsing is the resolving or explaining of a sentence according to the definitions and rules of grammar.

A *sentence* is an assemblage of words, making complete sense; as, "Beauty fades."—"Reward sweetens labor."

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

EXERCISE I.—*Point out, in the following sentences, the verb, the noun, and the article, and parse each as in the example.*

EXAMPLE 1.—"The man walks."

1. *Walks* is the verb, because it signifies action.
2. *Man* is the noun, because it is the name of a person.
3. *The* is the article, because it limits the signification of the noun, *man*.

The sun shines. William reads. The fire burns. The ship sailed. John studies grammar. The boy told an untruth. The horse is a quadruped. *A* is an article. The flowers bloom. Ducks swim. Does the sun shine? Birds build nests. Columbus discovered America. Hawks kill chickens. Cain slew Abel. The sun ripens the fruit.

EXERCISE II.—*Point out the verb, the noun, the article, the adjective, and the pronoun, and parse each as in the first and second examples.*

EXAMPLE 2.—"An idle scholar disgraces his teacher."

4. *Idle* is the adjective, because it expresses the quality of *scholar*.

5. *His* is the pronoun, because it is used instead of the noun *scholar*.

A good boy obeys his parents. Sarah learns her lessons. His story is a useful study. A disobedient boy disgraces his parents. The earth is a round body. Boys are heedless. They disregard their teachers. Wisdom is the principal thing. A noble mind scorns a mean action. Washington was a true patriot. A good book is an interesting companion. William found the money which his careless brother lost. A friend should bear a friend's infirmities. A faithful servant studies his master's interest. A cheerful temper is a great blessing.

EXERCISE III.—*Distinguish the parts of speech in the following sentences, and parse each as in the first, second, and third examples.*

EXAMPLE 3.—"The good scholar attends diligently and carefully to his lessons."

6. *Diligently* and *carefully* are adverbs, because they are added to the verb *attend*, and express manner.

7. *And* is a conjunction, because it connects the adverbs *diligently* and *carefully*.

8. *To* is a preposition, because it expresses the relation of the verb *attend* to the noun *lessons*.

John and Peter are good scholars. James is a dishonest and idle lad. The rose is a beautiful and fragrant flower. Prosperity gains friends, and adversity tries them. William studies diligently, but Charles is idle. A peach, an apple, a pear, or an orange is very delicious. The eagle has a strong and piercing eye. Candor, sincerity, and truth are amiable qualities. The horse runs swiftly. Caesar was a very famous general. He conquered many nations; and invaded the island of Britain. Hark! the trumpet sounds. Alas! how unfortunate he is! The industrious and attentive scholar learns with great ease and rapidity. Virtuous youth gradually brings forward accomplished and flourishing manhood. Sloth enfeebles equally the bodily and the mental powers. The shortest life is long, if it leads to a better.

EXERCISE IV.—*State what part of speech is required in each of the following sentences, fill the blanks and parse each word.*

The man walks _____. John writes _____. Quicksilver is bright _____ shining. _____ boy is amiable _____ talented; _____ he does not study. _____ is beautiful _____ fragrant.

Set the book' — the —. The bird flew — a tree.
 The ship sailed — the harbor. The fear — punishment
 — crime. My father has gone — Boston, — will
 — return. The travelers sat — a — fire. The —
 scholars have studied — lessons, and — know — well.
 The hare is a — timid animal. He runs away very —
 when he — the least noise.

CHAPTER II.—OF ARTICLES.

An Article is the word *the*, *an*, or *a*, which we put before nouns to limit their signification: as, *The* air, *the* stars; *an* island, *a* ship.

An and *a* are one and the same article. *An* is used whenever the following word begins with a vowel sound; as, *An* art, *an* end, *an* heir, *an* inch, *an* ounce, *an* hour, *an* urn. *A* is used whenever the following word begins with a consonant sound; as, *A* man, *a* house, *a* wonder, *a* one, *a* yew, *a* use, *a* ewer. Thus the sounds of *w* and *y*, even when expressed by other letters, require *a* and not *an* before them.

The articles are distinguished as the *definite* and the *indefinite*.

The *definite article* is *the*, which denotes some particular thing or things; as, *The* boy, *the* oranges.

The *indefinite article* is *an* or *a*, which denotes one thing of a kind, but not any particular one; as, *A* boy, *an* orange.

Obs.—A common noun without an article or other word to limit its signification, is generally taken in its widest sense; as, "A candid temper is proper for *man*; that is, for *all mankind*."—*Murray*.

CHAPTER III.—OF NOUNS.

A Noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned; as, *George*, *York*, *man*, *apple*, *truth*.

CLASSES.

Nouns are divided into two general classes; *proper* and *common*.

I. A *proper noun* is the name of some particular individual, or people, or group; as, *Adam*, *Boston*, the *Hudson*, the *Romans*, the *Azores*, the *Alps*.

II. A *common noun* is the name of a sort, kind, or class of beings or things; as, *Beast*, *bird*, *fish*, *insect*, *creatures*, *persons*, *children*.

The particular classes, *collective*, *abstract*, and *verbal*, or *participial*, are usually included among common nouns. The name of a thing *sui generis* is also called common.

1. A *collective noun*, or *noun of multitude*, is the name of many individuals together; as, *Council*, *meeting*, *committee*, *flock*.

2. An *abstract noun* is the name of some particular quality considered apart from its substance; as, *Goodness*, *hardness*, *pride*, *frailty*.

3. A *verbal* or *participial noun* is the name of some action or state of being; and is formed from a verb, like a participle, but employed as a noun: as, "The *triumphing* of the wicked is short."—*Job*, xx, 5.

4. A thing *sui generis* (i. e., *of its own peculiar kind*), is something which is distinguished, not as an individual of a species, but as a sort by itself, without plurality in either the noun or the sort of thing; as, *Galvanism*, *music*, *geometry*.

MODIFICATIONS.

Nouns have modifications of four kinds; namely, *Persons*, *Numbers*, *Genders*, and *Cases*.

PERSONS.

Persons, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish the speaker, the hearer, and the person or thing merely spoken of.

There are three persons; the *first*, the *second*, and the *third*.

The *first person* is that which denotes the speaker or writer; as, "*I Paul* have written it."

The *second person* is that which denotes the hearer, or the person addressed; as, "*Robert*, who did this?"

The *third person* is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of; as, "*James* loves his *book*."

Obs. 1.—The distinction of persons belongs to nouns, pronouns, and finite verbs; and to these it is always applied, either by peculiarity of form or construction, or by inference from the principles of concord. Pronouns are like their antecedents, and verbs are like their subjects, in person.

Obs. 2.—The speaker seldom refers to himself by name, as the speaker; consequently, *nouns* are rarely used in the first person.

Obs. 3.—When inanimate things are spoken to, it is by a figure of speech, called *personification*.

NUMBERS.

Numbers, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish unity and plurality.

There are two numbers; the *singular* and the *plural*.

The *singular number* is that which denotes but one; as, "The *boy* learns."

The *plural number* is that which denotes more than one; as, "The *boys* learn."

The plural number of *nouns* is regularly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular: as, *book, books; box, boxes*.

Obs. 1.—The distinction of numbers belongs to nouns, pronouns, and finite verbs; and to these it is always applied, either by peculiarity of form, or by inference from the principles of concord. Pronouns are like their antecedents, and verbs are like their subjects in number.

Obs. 2.—When a singular *noun* ends in a sound which will unite with that of *s*, the plural is generally formed by adding *s* only, and the number of syllables is not increased: as, *pen, pens; grape, grapes*.

Obs. 3.—But when the sound of *s* cannot be united with that of the primitive word, the plural adds *s* to final *e*, and *es* to other

terminations, and forms a separate syllable: as, *page, pages; fox, foxes.*

Obs. 4.—Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant, add *es*, but do not increase their syllables: as, *wo, woes; hero, heroes.* Other nouns in *o* add *s* only: as, *folio, folios.*

Obs. 5.—Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i*, and add *es*, without increase of syllables: as, *fly, flies; duty, duties.* Other nouns in *y* add *s* only: as, *day, days; valley, valleys.*

Obs. 6.—The following nouns in *f*, change *f* into *v*, and add *es*, for the plural; *sheaf, leaf, loaf, beef, thief, calf, half, elf, shelf, self, wolf, wharf*; as, *sheaves, leaves, etc.* *Life, lives; knife, knives; wife, wives*; are similar.

Obs. 7.—The greater number of nouns in *f* and *fe* are regular; as, *fifes, stripes, chiefs, griefs, gulfs, etc.*

Obs. 8.—The following are still more irregular: *man, men; woman, women; child, children; brother, brethren [or brothers]; foot, feet; ox, oxen; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; louse, lice; mouse, mice; die, dice; penny, pence.* *Dies, stamps, and pennies, coins,* are regular.

Obs. 9.—Many foreign nouns retain their original plural; as, *arcanum, arcana; radius, radii; vortex, vortices; axis, axes; phenomenon, phenomena; seraph, seraphim.*

Obs. 10.—Some nouns have no plural: as, *gold, pride, meekness.*

Obs. 11.—Some nouns have no singular: as, *embers, ices, oats, scissors, tongs, vespers, literati, minutia.*

Obs. 12.—Some are alike in both numbers: as, *sheep, deer, swine, hose, means, odds, news, species, series, apparatus.*

Obs. 13.—Compounds in which the principal word is put first, vary the principal word to form the plural, and the adjunct to form the possessive case: as, *father-in-law, fathers-in-law, father-in-law's.*

Obs. 14.—Compounds ending in *ful*, and all those in which the principal word is put last, form the plural in the same manner as other nouns: as *handfuls, spoonfuls, mouthfuls, fellow-servants, man-servants.*

Obs. 15.—Nouns of multitude, when taken collectively, admit the plural form: as, *meeting, meetings.* But when taken distributively, they have a plural signification, without the form: as, "The jury were divided."

GENDERS.

Genders, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish objects in regard to sex.

There are three genders; the *masculine*, the *feminine*, and the *neuter*.

The *masculine gender* is that which denotes persons or animals of the male kind; as, *man, father, king.*

The *feminine gender* is that which denotes persons or animals of the female kind; as, *woman, mother, queen*.

The *neuter gender* is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female; as, *pen, ink, paper*.

Obs. 1.—The different genders belong only to nouns and pronouns; and to these they are usually applied agreeably to the order of nature. Pronouns are of the same gender as the nouns for which they stand.

Obs. 2.—Some nouns are equally applicable to both sexes; as, *cousin, friend, neighbor, parent, person, servant*. The gender of these is usually determined by the context.

Obs. 3.—Those terms which are equally applicable to both sexes, (if they are not expressly applied to females,) and those plurals which are known to include both sexes, should be called masculine in parsing; for, in all languages, the masculine gender is considered the most worthy, and is generally employed when both sexes are included under one common term.

Obs. 4.—The sexes are distinguished in three ways:

I. By the use of different names: as, *bachelor, maid; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cow; cock, hen*.

II. By the use of different terminations: as, *abbot, abbess; hero, heroine; administrator, administratrix*.

III. By prefixing an attribute of distinction: as, *cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; man-servant, maid-servant; he-goat, she-goat; male relations, female relations*.

Obs. 5.—The names of things without life, used literally, are always of the neuter gender. But inanimate objects are often represented figuratively as having sex. Things remarkable for power, greatness, or sublimity, are spoken of as masculine: as, *the sun, time, death, sleep, fear, anger, winter, war*. Things beautiful, amiable, or prolific, are spoken of as feminine: as, *the moon, earth, nature, fortune, knowledge, hope, spring, peace*.

Obs. 6.—Nouns of multitude, when they convey the idea of unity, or take the plural form, are of the neuter gender; but when they convey the idea of plurality without the form, they follow the gender of the individuals that compose the assemblage.

Obs. 7.—Creatures whose sex is unknown, or unnecessary to be regarded, are generally spoken of as neuter: as, "He fired at the *deer*, and wounded *it*."—"If a man shall steal an *ox* or a *sheep* and kill *it* or sell *it*," etc.—*Exod.*, xxii. 1.

CASES.

Cases, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish the relations of nouns and pronouns to other words.

There are three cases; the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

The *nominative case* is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb: as, The *boy* runs; *I* run.

The *possessive case* is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the relation of property: as, The *boy's* hat; *my* hat.

The *objective case* is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition: as, I know the *boy*; he knows *me*.

Obs. 1.—The cases belong only to nouns and pronouns. Pronouns are not necessarily like their antecedents, in case.

Obs. 2.—The nominative and the objective of nouns are always alike, being distinguishable from each other only by their place in a sentence, or their simple dependence according to the sense.

Obs. 3.—The *subject* of a verb is that which answers to *who* or *what* before it: as, "The boy runs."—*Who* runs? The *boy*. *Boy* is therefore here in the *nominative case*.

Obs. 4.—The *object* of a verb, participle, or preposition, is that which answers to *whom* or *what* after it: as, "I know the boy."—I know *whom*? The *boy*. *Boy* is therefore here in the *objective case*.

Obs. 5.—The possessive case of nouns is formed, in the singular number, by adding to the nominative *s* preceded by an *apostrophe*; and, in the plural, when the nominative ends in *s*, by adding an *apostrophe only*: as, *boy*, *boy's*, *boys*'.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

The declension of a noun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases. Thus:—

EXAMPLE I.—FRIEND.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	friend,	Nom.	friends,
Poss.	friend's,	Poss.	friends',
Obj.	friend;	Obj.	friends.

EXAMPLE II.—MAN.

Nom.	man,	Nom.	men,
Poss.	man's,	Poss.	men's,
Obj.	man;	Obj.	men.

EXAMPLE III.—FOX.

Nom.	fox,	Nom.	foxes,
Poss.	fox's,	Poss.	foxes',
Obj.	fox ;	Obj.	foxes.

EXAMPLE IV.—FLY.

Nom.	fly,	Nom.	flies.
Poss.	fly's,	Poss.	flies',
Obj.	fly ;	Obj.	flies.

ANALYSIS.

Analysis is the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

Every sentence must contain two principal parts; namely, the *subject* and the *predicate*.

Whatever is directly spoken of in the sentence is the *subject*; as, "The *sun* has set."—"Can *you* write?"

That which is said of the subject is the *predicate*. In its simplest form it is always a verb.

Any combination of the subject and predicate is called a *proposition*.

A *simple sentence* is one that contains only one proposition; as, "Fire burns."—"The truth will prevail."

A simple sentence may be *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, or *exclamatory*.

It is *declarative* when it expresses an affirmation or negation; *interrogative*, when it expresses a question; *imperative*, when it expresses a command; and *exclamatory*, when it expresses an exclamation.

Obs.—In analyzing simple sentences, the *subject* and *predicate* (i. e., the *simple predicate*, or verb) should be found first, and then the *object*, if the sentence contain one. The object is, however, a part of the *general predicate*. The subject, in imperative sentences, is not expressed, but must be supplied in analysis. It is the person or thing addressed, represented by *thou* or *you*, (understood.)

EXERCISES.—ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

EXERCISE I.—*Analyze each of the following sentences by pointing out the subject, the predicate, and the object (if there be any), and*

state whether it is declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.

EXAMPLE.—“Contentment brings happiness.”

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *contentment*; the predicate, *brings*; the object, *happiness*.

Vice brings misery. Diligence will be rewarded. Despise meanness. Can virtue bring disgrace? Plants produce flowers. Haste makes waste. Does the boy study grammar? Love truth. Honor merit. Beauty fades. Justice will prevail. Perseverance overcomes obstacles. Can indolence bring prosperity? Could the sailor have escaped shipwreck? The merchant sells goods. The scholar has made improvement. Vanity excites disgust. Has the messenger returned? The tree bears fruit.

EXERCISE II.—*Parse each word in the above sentences according to the following example.*

EXAMPLE.—“Contentment brings happiness.”

Contentment is a common noun; of the third person, because it is spoken of; of the singular number, because it denotes only one; of the neuter gender, because it is neither male nor female; of the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *brings*.

Brings is a verb, because it signifies action.

Happiness is a common noun of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and of the objective case, because it is the object of the verb *brings*.

CHAPTER IV.—OF ADJECTIVES.

An Adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality: as, A *wise* man; a *new* book.—You *two* are *diligent*.

CLASSES.

Adjectives may be divided into six classes; namely, *common*, *proper*, *numeral*, *pronominal*, *participial*, and *compound*.

I. A *common adjective* is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denoting quality or situation; as, *Good*, *bad*, *peaceful*, *warlike*—*eastern*, *western*, *outer*, *inner*.

II. A *proper adjective* is one that is formed from a proper name; as, *American*, *English*, *Platonic*.

III. A *numeral adjective* is one that expresses a definite number ; as, *One, two, three, four, etc.*

IV. A *pronominal adjective* is a definitive word which may either accompany its noun, or represent it understood ; as, "*All [men] join to guard what each [man] desires to gain.*"—*Pope.*

V. A *participial adjective* is one that has the form of a participle, but differs from it by rejecting the idea of time ; as, *An amusing story.*

VI. A *compound adjective* is one that consists of two or more words joined together ; as, *Nut-brown, laughter-loving, four-footed.*

Obs.—Numeral adjectives are of three kinds: namely,

1. *Cardinal* ; as, *One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, etc.*
2. *Ordinal* ; as, *First, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, etc.*
3. *Multiplicative* ; as, *Single or alone, double or twofold, triple or threefold, quadruple or fourfold, etc.*

MODIFICATIONS.

Adjectives have, commonly, no modifications but the forms of *comparison*.

Comparison is a variation of the adjective, to express quality in different degrees ; as, *hard, harder, hardest.*

There are three degrees of comparison ; the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*.

The *positive degree* is that which is expressed by the adjective in its simple form ; as, *hard, soft, good.*

The *comparative degree* is that which exceeds the positive ; as, *harder, softer, better.*

The *superlative degree* is that which is not exceeded ; as, *hardest, softest, best.*

Those adjectives whose signification does not admit of different degrees, cannot be compared ; as, *two, second, all, total, immortal, infinite.*

Those adjectives which may be varied in sense, but not in form, are compared by means of adverbs; as, skillful, *more* skillful, *most* skillful,—skillful, *less* skillful, *least* skillful.

Adjectives are regularly compared, when the comparative degree is expressed by adding *er*, and the superlative by adding *est*, to them; as,

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
great,	greater,	greatest.
*wide,	wider,	widest.
hot,	hotter,	hottest.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: *good, better, best; bad or ill, worse, worst; little, less, least; much, more, most; many, more, most; far, farther, farthest; late, later or latter, latest or last.*

Obs. 1.—As the simple form of the adjective does not necessarily imply comparison, and as many adjectives admit no other, some think it is not requisite in parsing, to mention the degree, unless it be the comparative or the superlative.

Obs. 2.—The method of comparison by *er* and *est*, is chiefly applicable to monosyllables, and to dissyllables ending in *y* or mute *e*.

Obs. 3.—The different degrees of a quality may also be expressed, with precisely the same import, by prefixing to the adjective, the adverbs *more* and *most*: as, *wise, more wise, most wise; famous, more famous, most famous; amiable, more amiable, most amiable.*

Obs. 4.—Diminution of quality is expressed, in like manner, by the adverbs *less* and *least*: as, *wise, less wise, least wise; famous, less famous, least famous.*

Obs. 5.—The prefixing of an adverb can hardly be called a variation of the adjective. The words may with more propriety be parsed separately, the *degree* being ascribed to the adverb, or to each word.

Obs. 6.—Most adjectives of more than one syllable, must be compared by means of the adverbs; because they do not admit a change of termination: thus, we may say, *virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous*; but not *virtuous, virtuouser, virtuousest*.

Obs. 7.—Common adjectives are more numerous than all the other adjectives put together. Very many of these, and a few pronominals and participials, may be compared; but adjectives formed from proper names, all the numerals, and most of the compounds, are in no way susceptible of comparison.

* See Rules for Spelling, III and VI.

Obs. 8.—Nouns are often used as adjectives; as, An *iron* bar—An *evening* school—A *mahogany* chair—A *South-Sea* dream. These also are incapable of comparison.

Obs. 9.—The numerals are often used as nouns; and, as such, are regularly declined: as, Such a *one*—*One's* own self—The little *ones*—By *tens*—For *twenty's* sake.

Obs. 10.—Comparatives, and the word *other*, are sometimes also employed as nouns, and have the regular declension; as, Our *superiors*—His *bettors*—The *elder's* advice—An* *other's* woe—Let *others* do as they will. But, as adjectives, these words are invariable.

Obs. 11.—Pronominal adjectives, when their nouns are expressed, simply relate to them, and have no modifications; except *this* and *that*, which form the plural *these* and *those*; and *much*, *many*, and a few others, which are compared.

Obs. 12.—Pronominal adjectives, when their nouns are not expressed, may be parsed as representing them in *person*, *number*, *gender*, and *case*.

Obs. 13.—The following are the principal pronominal adjectives: *All*, *any*, *both*, *each*, *either*, *every*, *few*, *former*, *first*, *latter*, *last*, *many*, *neither*, *none*, *one*, *other*, *same*, *some*, *such*, *this*, *that*, *which*, *what*. *Which* and *what*, when they are not prefixed to nouns, are, for the most part, relative or interrogative pronouns.

ANALYSIS.

Words, added to any other word in the sentence to modify or limit its meaning, are called *adjuncts*.

Primary adjuncts are those added directly to any of the principal parts; as, "*Good* books *always* deserve a *careful* perusal."

Secondary adjuncts are those added to other adjuncts; as, "*Suddenly* acquired wealth *very* rarely brings happiness."

Adjuncts are sometimes called *modifications*.

Obs. 1.—The *subject* or the *object* may be modified by different parts of speech; as, 1. By an article or adjective; as, "*The diligent*

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scholar improves." 2. By a noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, "*William's* sister has lost her book." 3. By a noun or pronoun, used merely for explanation; as, "His brother, *Charles*, is idle." 4. By a preposition and its object, used as an adjective; as, "The heavens declare the glory *of God*." 5. By a verb; as, "The desire *to excel* is laudable."

Obs. 2.—The *predicate* may be modified, 1. By an *adverb*; as, "The sun shines *brightly*." 2. By a *preposition* and its object, used as an adverb; as, "He came *from Boston*."

Obs. 3.—The modifications enumerated are those of the *simplest form*. Others are mentioned and described as the pupil proceeds.

EXERCISE.—*Analyze each sentence, pointing out first, the subject, the predicate, and the object, and secondly, the adjuncts of each; parse each word.*

EXAMPLE. "The good scholar attentively studies his lessons."

This is a simple declarative sentence.

1. The subject is *scholar*; the predicate, *studies*; the object, *lessons*.

2. The adjuncts of the subject are *the* and *good*; the adjunct of the predicate is *attentively*; the adjunct of the object is *his*.

Many severe afflictions overtook that unfortunate man. He suddenly lost all his property. Every person highly praised William's noble conduct. Cæsar fought many great battles. William has carelessly torn John's beautiful new book. The Athenians carefully observed Solon's wise laws. The queen has wisely proclaimed a general peace. John yesterday found Sarah's new book. That ferocious dog has severely bitten Charles's right arm. When will his brother return? Where did your kind father buy that interesting book? Always cheerfully obey your parents. Never neglect the smallest duty. This benevolent young lady kindly teaches many poor children. Twelve pence make one shilling. The English Reader was formerly much used. John has bought two entertaining books. The Russian ambassador has presented his credentials. His brother attends the Lutheran church. Both these bad boys deserve severe punishment. The traveller related many amusing incidents. This merchant has just returned from Europe. In winter, the snow covers the ground. The love of truth should be carefully cultivated. All the objects of nature deserve diligent study. Grammar teaches the right use of language.

CHAPTER V.—OF PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun: as, The boy loves *his* book; *he* has long lessons, and *he* learns *them* well.

Obs. 8.—Nouns are often used as adjectives; as, An *iron* bar—An *evening* school—A *mahogany* chair—A *South-Sea* dream. These also are incapable of comparison.

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Obs. 1.—The word for which a pronoun stands, is called its *antecedent*, because it usually precedes the pronoun.

Obs. 2.—Pronouns often stand for persons or things not named; the antecedent, being *understood*.

Obs. 3.—A pronoun with which a question is asked, stands for some person or thing unknown to the speaker, and may be said to have no antecedent; as, “*What* lies there?” Ans. “A man asleep.”

Obs. 4.—One pronoun may stand as the immediate antecedent to another; as, “Blessed are *they that* mourn.”

CLASSES.

Pronouns are divided into three classes; *personal*, *relative*, and *interrogative*.

I. A *personal pronoun*, is a pronoun that shows by its form of what person it is.

The *simple* personal pronouns are five: namely, *I*, of the first person; *thou*, of the second person; *he*, *she*, and *it*, of the third person.

The *compound* personal pronouns are also five: namely, *myself*, of the first person; *thyself*, of the second person; *himself*, *herself*, and *itself*, of the third person.

II. A *relative pronoun*, is a pronoun that represents an antecedent word or phrase, and connects different clauses of a sentence.

The *relative pronouns* are, *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*; and the compounds *whoever* or *whosoever*, *whichever* or *whichsoever*, *whatever* or *whatsoever*.

What is a kind of double relative, equivalent to *that which*, or *those which*; and is to be parsed first *as antecedent*, and then *as relative*.

III. An *interrogative pronoun*, is a pronoun with which a question is asked.

The interrogative pronouns are, *who*, *which*, and *what*; being the same in form as relatives.

Obs. 1.—*Who* is usually applied to persons only; *which*, though formerly applied to persons, is now confined to animals and inani-

mate things; *what* (as a mere pronoun) is applied to things only; *that* is applied indifferently to persons, animals, or things.

Obs. 2.—The pronoun *what* has a twofold relation, and is often used (by ellipsis of the noun) both as antecedent and relative, being equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which*. In this double relation, *what* represents two cases at the same time; as, "He is ashamed of *what* he has done;" that is, of *that which* he has done.

Obs. 3.—*What* is sometimes used both as an adjective and a relative at the same time, and is placed before the noun which it represents; as, "*What* money we had, was taken away;" that is, *All the money that* we had, etc.—"*What* man but enters, dies:" that is, *Any* man who, etc.—"*What* god but enters yon forbidden field."—*Pope*. Indeed, it does not admit of being construed after a noun, as a simple relative. The compound *whatever* or *whatsoever* has the same peculiarities of construction; as, "We will certainly do *whatsoever* thing goeth forth out of our own mouth."—*Jer.*, xliv, 17.

Obs. 4.—*Who*, *which*, and *what*, when the affix *ever* or *soever* is added, have an unlimited signification; and, as some general term, such as *any person* or *any thing* is implied in the antecedent, they are commonly followed by *two verbs*: as, "*Whoever* attends will improve;" that is, *Any person who* attends will improve.

Obs. 5.—*That* is a relative pronoun, when it is equivalent to *who* or *which*; as, "The days *that* [which] are past, are gone forever." It is a definitive or pronominal adjective, when it relates to a noun expressed or understood; as, "*That* book is new." In other cases, it is a conjunction; as, "Live well, *that* you may die well."

Obs. 6.—The word *as*, though usually a conjunction or an adverb, has sometimes the construction of a relative pronoun; as, "The Lord added to the church daily such [persons] *as* should be saved."—*Acts*, ii, 47.

Obs. 7.—*Whether* was formerly used as an interrogative pronoun, referring to one of two things; as, "*Whether* is greater, the gold or the temple?"—*Matt.*, xxiii, 17.

MODIFICATIONS.

Pronouns have the same modifications as nouns; namely, *Persons*, *Numbers*, *Genders*, and *Cases*.

Obs. 1.—In the personal pronouns, most of these properties are distinguished by the words themselves; in the relative and the interrogative pronouns, they are ascertained chiefly by the antecedent and the verb.

Obs. 2.—"The pronouns of the first and second persons, are both masculine and feminine; that is, of the same gender as the person or persons they represent."—*Levisac*. The speaker and the hearer, being present to each other, of course know the sex to which they respectively belong; and, whenever they appear in narrative, we are told who they are.

Obs. 3.—*Murray* and some others deny the first person of *nouns*, and the gender of pronouns of the *first* and *second* persons; and at the same time teach, that, "Pronouns must agree with their nouns, in *person*, *number*, and *gender*." Now, no two words *can agree* in any property which belongs not to both!

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

The declension of a pronoun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases.

The personal pronouns are thus declined:—

I, of the FIRST PERSON, any of the genders.

Sing. Nom. I,	Plur. Nom. we,
Poss. my, or mine,	Poss. our, or ours,
Obj. me;	Obj. us.

THOU, of the SECOND PERSON, any of the genders.

Sing. Nom. thou,	Plur. Nom. ye, or you,
Poss. thy, or thine,	Poss. your, or yours,
Obj. thee;	Obj. you.

HE, of the THIRD PERSON, masculine gender.

Sing. Nom. he,	Plur. Nom. they,
Poss. his,	Poss. their, or theirs.
Obj. him;	Obj. them.

SHE, of the THIRD PERSON, feminine gender.

Sing. Nom. she,	Plur. Nom. they,
Poss. her, or hers,	Poss. their, or theirs,
Obj. her;	Obj. them.

IT, of the THIRD PERSON, neuter gender.

Sing. Nom. it,	Plur. Nom. they,
Poss. its,	Poss. their, or theirs,
Obj. it;	Obj. them.

The word *self* added to the personal pronouns, forms a class of *compound personal pronouns*, that are used when an action reverts upon the agent, and also when some persons are to be distinguished from others: as, sing. *myself*, plur. *ourselves*; sing. *thyself*, plur. *yourselves*; sing. *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, plur. *themselves*. They all want the possessive case, and are alike in the nominative and objective.

The relative and the interrogative pronouns are thus declined :—

WHO, *applied only to persons.*

Sing. Nom. who,	Plur. Nom. who,
Poss. whose,	Poss. whose,
Obj. whom ;	Obj. whom.

WHICH, *applied to animals and things.*

Sing. Nom. which,	Plur. Nom. which,
Poss. *———	Poss. ———
Obj. which ;	Obj. which.

WHAT, *generally applied to things.*

Sing. Nom. what,	Plur. Nom. what,
Poss. ———	Poss. ———
Obj. what ;	Obj. what.

THAT, *applied to persons, animals, and things.*

Sing. Nom. that,	Plus. Nom. that,
Poss. ———	Poss. ———
Obj. that ;	Obj. that.

The compound relative pronouns, *whoever* or *whosoever*, *whichever* or *whichever*, and *whatever* or *whatsoever*, are declined in the same manner as the simples, *who*, *which*, *what*.

ANALYSIS.

When simple sentences are connected, they form *compound* or *complex* sentences, and are then called *clauses*.

A clause, therefore, is a division of a compound or a complex sentence. Compound or complex clauses are sometimes called *members*.

Clauses may be connected by conjunctions, relative pronouns, or adverbs.

A clause, used as one of the principal parts of a sentence, or as an adjunct to any word, is called a *dependent clause*.

* *Whose* is sometimes used as the possessive case of *which*, as, "A religion whose origin is divine."—*Blair*.

The clause on which it depends, or of which it forms a part, is called the *principal clause*.

A sentence composed of a principal and a dependent clause, is called a *complex sentence*.

When neither of the component clauses of a sentence is dependent, it is called a *compound sentence*.

A clause, introduced by a relative pronoun, is often called a *relative clause*.

Obs.—The relative clause is a dependent clause, and the sentence in which it occurs is therefore complex. It is not, however, always a *modifying* clause, being sometimes used to express an *additional fact*. Thus in the sentence, "This is the man that committed the deed," the relative clause modifies the noun *man*; but in the sentence, "I gave the book to John, who has lost it," it is equivalent to "and he has lost it." In each case it is used like an adjective.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

EXERCISE I.—*State whether the sentence is complex or compound; separate it into its component clauses; analyze each as in the previous exercise.*

EXAMPLE.—"The messenger who was sent, has returned."

This is a complex declarative sentence; the principal clause is, *The messenger has returned*, and the dependent clause is, *Who was sent*, an adjunct of *messenger*; the connective word is *who*.

The subject of the principal clause is, *messenger*; the predicate is, *has returned*; the adjuncts of the subject are *the*, and the relative clause, *who was sent*; the predicate has no adjuncts. The subject of the dependent clause, is *who*, and the predicate, *was sent*; neither has any adjuncts.

/ Children who disobey their parents, deserve punishment. 2 The young man who embezzled his employer's money, was yesterday arrested. 3 Hatred stirreth up strifes, but love covereth all sins. 4 He that walketh uprightly, walketh surely. 5 Them that honor me I will honor. 6 I immediately perceived the object which he pointed out. 7 Who can respect a man that has lost his self-respect? 8 Who ever dreads punishment, suffers it already. 9 He imprudently reported what his friend told him. 10 You may purchase whatever you need. 11 What cannot be prevented must be endured. 12 You should carefully avoid rudeness, which always excites ill-will. Cæsar, who conquered many nations, was assassinated. 13 When spring returns, the trees resume their verdure. 14 We always respect a man who scrupulously observes the truth. 15 When my friend returns, I shall know all the facts. 16 Washington was universally admired, because he faithfully served his country. 17 Every one despised Benedict Arnold, who betrayed his country.

EXERCISE II.—*Parse each word in the above sentences as in the previous exercise; state the class and modifications of the pronouns.*

CHAPTER VI.—OF VERBS.

A Verb is a word that signifies *to be*, *to act*, or *to be acted upon*: as, *I am*, *I rule*, *I am ruled*.

CLASSES.

Verbs are divided, with respect to their *form*, into four classes; *regular*, *irregular*, *redundant*, and *defective*.

I. A *regular verb* is a verb that forms the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*; as, *love*, *loved*, *loving*, *loved*.

II. An *irregular verb* is a verb that does not form the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*; as, *see*, *saw*, *seeing*, *seen*.

III. A *redundant verb* is a verb that forms the preterit or the perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular; as, *thrive*, *thrived* or *throve*, *thriving*, *thrived* or *thriven*.

IV. A *defective verb* is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few of the moods and tenses; as, *beware*, *ought*, *quoit*.

Obs.—Regular verbs form their preterit and perfect participle by adding *d* to final *e*, and *ed* to all other terminations. The verb *hear*, *heard*, *hearing*, *heard*, adds *d* to *r*, and is therefore irregular.

Verbs are divided again, with respect to their *signification*, into four classes; *active-transitive*, *active-intransitive*, *passive*, and *neuter*.

I. An *active-transitive verb* is a verb that expresses an action which has some person or thing for its object; as, "*Cain slew Abel*."

II. An *active-intransitive verb* is a verb that expresses an action which has no person or thing for its object; as, "*John walks*."

III. A *passive verb* is a verb that represents its

subject, or nominative, as being acted upon ; as, "I *am compelled*."

IV. A *neuter verb* is a verb that expresses neither action nor passion, but simply being, or a state of being ; as, "Thou *art*."—"He *sleeps*."

MODIFICATIONS.

Verbs have modifications of four kinds ; namely, *Moods*, *Tenses*, *Persons*, and *Numbers*.

MOODS.

Moods are different forms of the verb, each of which expresses the being, action, or passion, in some particular manner.

There are five moods ; the *Infinitive*, the *Indicative*, the *Potential*, the *Subjunctive*, and the *Imperative*.

The *Infinitive mood* is that form of the verb, which expresses the being, action, or passion, in an unlimited manner, and without person or number ; as, *To read*, *to speak*.

The *Indicative mood* is that form of the verb, which simply indicates, or declares a thing : as, *I write* ; *you know* : or asks a question ; as, *Do you know ?*

The *Potential mood* is that form of the verb, which expresses the power, liberty, possibility, or necessity, of the being, action, or passion : as, *I can read* ; *we must go*.

The *Subjunctive mood* is that form of the verb, which represents the being, action, or passion, as conditional, doubtful, and contingent : as, "If thou *go*, see that thou *offend* not."

The *Imperative mood* is that form of the verb, which is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting : as, "*Depart* thou."—"Be *comforted*."—"Forgive me."—"Go in peace."

Obs.—A verb in any other mood than the *infinitive*, is called, by way of distinction, a *finite* verb.

TENSES.

Tenses are those modifications of the verb, which distinguish time.

There are six tenses; the *Present*, the *Imperfect*, the *Perfect*, the *Pluperfect*, the *First-future*, and the *Second-future*.

The *Present tense* is that which expresses what now *exists*, or *is taking* place: as, “*I hear* a noise; somebody *is coming*.”

The *Imperfect tense* is that which expresses what *took* place, or *was occurring*, in time fully past: as, “*I saw* him yesterday; he *was walking* out.”

The *Perfect tense* is that which expresses what *has taken* place, within some period of time not yet fully past: as, “*I have seen* him to-day.”

The *Pluperfect tense* is that which expresses what *had taken* place, at some past time mentioned: as, “*I had seen* him, when I met you.”

The *First-future tense* is that which expresses what *will take* place hereafter: as, “*I shall see* him again.”

The *Second-future tense* is that which expresses what *will have taken* place, at some future time mentioned: as, “*I shall have seen* him by to-morrow noon.”

Obs.—The tenses do not all express time with equal precision. Those of the indicative mood are in general the most definite. The time expressed by the same tenses (or what are called by the same names) in the other moods, is frequently relative, and sometimes indefinite. The *present infinitive* often expresses what is relatively *future*. The *potential imperfect* is properly an aorist: no definite time is usually implied in it. The *subjunctive imperfect* is also an aorist, or indefinite tense: it may refer to time past, present, or future.

Third Person Singular.

IND. He loves, He loved, He has loved, He had loved, He will love, He will have loved. POT. He may love, He might love, He may have loved, He might have loved. SUBJ. If he love, If he loved.

First Person Plural.

IND. We love, We loved, We have loved, We had loved, We shall love, We shall have loved. POT. We may love, We might love, We may have loved, We might have loved. SUBJ. If we love, If we loved.

Second Person Plural.

IND. You love, You loved, You have loved, You had loved, You will love, You will have loved. POT. You may love, You might love, You may have loved, You might have loved. SUBJ. If you love, If you loved. IMP. Love [ye or you], or Do you love.

Third Person Plural.

IND. They love, They loved, They have loved, They had loved, They will love, They will have loved. POT. They may love, They might love, They may have loved, They might have loved. SUBJ. If they love, If they loved.

SECOND EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the irregular active verb

SEE.

Principal Parts.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperfect Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
See.	Saw.	Seeing.	Seen.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To see.

Perfect Tense. To have seen.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I see,	1. We see,
2. Thou seest,	2. You see,
3. He sees;	3. They see.

ly, the *Present*, the *Preterit*, the *Imperfect Participle*, and the *Perfect Participle*. A verb which wants any of these parts, is called *defective*.

An *auxiliary* is a short verb prefixed to one of the principal parts of an other verb, to express some particular mode and time of the being, action, or passion. The auxiliaries are *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, and *must*, with their variations.

Obs.—Some of these, especially *do*, *be*, and *have*, are also used as principal verbs.

Verbs are conjugated in the following manner:

I. SIMPLE FORM, ACTIVE OR NEUTER.

The simplest form of an English conjugation, is that which makes the present and imperfect tenses without auxiliaries; but even in these, auxiliaries are required for the potential mood, and are often preferred for the indicative.

FIRST EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the regular active verb

LOVE.

Principal Parts.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperfect Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To love.

Perfect Tense. To have loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. The simple form of the present tense is varied thus:—

Singular.

- 1st per. I love,
 2d per. Thou lovest,
 3d per. He loves;

Plural.

- 1st per. We love.
 2d per. You love.
 3d per. They love.

2. This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary *do* to the verb: thus,—

Singular.

1. I do love,
 2. Thou dost love,
 3. He does love;

Plural.

1. We do love,
 2. You do love,
 3. They do love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense in its simple form, is the *preterit*. In all regular verbs, it adds *d* or *ed* to the present, but in others it is formed variously.

1. The simple form of the imperfect tense is varied thus:—

Singular.

1. I loved,
 2. Thou lovedst,
 3. He loved;

Plural.

1. We loved,
 2. You loved,
 3. They loved.

2. This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary *did* to the present: thus,—

Singular.

1. I did love,
 2. Thou didst love,
 3. He did love;

Plural.

1. We did love,
 2. You did love,
 3. They did love.

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *have* to the perfect participle: thus,—

Singular.

1. I have loved,
 2. Thou hast loved,
 3. He has loved;

Plural.

1. We have loved,
 2. You have loved,
 3. They have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *had* to the perfect participle: thus,—

Singular.

1. I had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,
3. He had loved;

Plural.

1. We had loved,
2. You had loved,
3. They had loved.

First-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *shall* or *will* to the present: thus,—

1. Simply to express a future action or event:

Singular.

1. I shall love.
2. Thou wilt love,
3. He will love;

Plural.

1. We shall love,
2. You will love,
3. They will love.

2. To express a promise, volition, command, or threat:

Singular.

1. I will love,
2. Thou shalt love,
3. He shall love;

Plural.

1. We will love,
2. You shall love,
3. They shall love.

Second-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *shall have* or *will have* to the perfect participle: thus,—

Singular.

1. I shall have loved,
2. Thou wilt have loved,
3. He will have loved;

Plural.

1. We shall have loved,
2. You will have loved,
3. They will have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *may*, *can*, or *must*, to the radical verb: thus,—

Singular.

1. I may love,
2. Thou mayst love,
3. He may love;

Plural.

1. We may love,
2. You may love,
3. They may love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, to the radical verb: thus,—

Singular.

1. I might love,
2. Thou mightst love,
3. He might love;

Plural.

1. We might love,
2. You might love,
3. They might love.

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *may have*, *can have*, or *must have*, to the perfect participle: thus,—

Singular.

1. I may have loved,
2. Thou mayst have loved,
3. He may have loved;

Plural.

1. We may have loved,
2. You may have loved,
3. They may have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, or *should have*, to the perfect participle: thus,—

Singular.

1. I might have loved,
2. Thou mightst have loved,
3. He might have loved;

Plural.

1. We might have loved,
2. You might have loved,
3. They might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

This tense is generally used to express some condition on which a future action or event is affirmed, and is therefore considered by some grammarians as an elliptical form of the future.

Singular.

1. If I love,
2. If thou love,
3. If he love; —

Plural.

1. If we love,
2. If you love,
3. If they love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense, as well as the imperfect of the potential mood, with which it is frequently connected, is properly an aorist, or indefinite tense, and may refer to time past, present, or future.

Singular.

1. If I loved,
2. If thou loved,
3. If he loved;

Plural.

1. If we loved,
2. If you loved,
3. If they loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.* 2. Love [thou,] or Do thou love.*Plural.* 2. Love [ye or you,] or Do you love.

PARTICIPLES.

1. *The Imperfect,*

Loving.

2. *The Perfect,*

Loved.

3. *The Preperfect,*

Having loved.

SYNOPSIS OF THE FIRST EXAMPLE.

First Person Singular.

IND. I love, I loved, I have loved, I had loved, I shall love, I shall have loved. POT. I may love, I might love, I may have loved, I might have loved. SUBJ. If I love, If I loved.

*Second Person Singular.**

IND. Thou lovest, Thou lovedst, Thou hast loved, Thou hadst loved, Thou wilt love, Thou wilt have loved. POT. Thou mayst love, Thou mightst love, Thou mayst have loved, Thou mightst have loved. SUBJ. If thou love, If thou loved. IMP. Love [thou,] or Do thou love.

* In the familiar use of the second person singular, as retained by the Society of Friends, the verb is usually varied only in the present tense of the indicative mood, and in the auxiliary *have* of the perfect: thus,—

IND. Thou lovest, Thou loved, Thou hast loved, Thou had loved, Thou will love, Thou will have loved. POT. Thou may love, Thou might love, Thou may have loved, Thou might have loved. SUBJ. If thou love, If thou loved. IMP. Love [thou,] or Do thou love.

To avoid an unnecessary increase of syllables, the formation of the second person singular of the present tense, is also in some degree simplified, and rendered closely analogous to that of the third person singular; *st* or *est* being added for the former exactly as *s* or *es* is added for the latter: as, I *know*, thou *knowest*, he *knows*; I *read*, thou *readest*, he *reads*; I *take*, thou *takest*, he *takes*; I *bid*, thou *bidst*, he *bids*; I *pity*, thou *pitiest*, he *pities*. Thus there is no increase of syllables, when the verb ends with a sound which will unite with that of the letters added.—See *Inst. of E. Gram.*, p. 56.

This method of forming the verb accords with the practice of the most intelligent of those who retain the common use of this distinctive and consistent mode of address. It disencumbers their familiar dialect of a multitude of harsh and useless terminations, which serve only, when uttered, to give an uncouth prominence to words not often emphatic; and, without impairing the strength or perspicuity of the language, increases its harmony, and reduces the form of the verb, in the second person singular, nearly to the same simplicity as in the other persons and numbers. This simplification is supported by usage as extensive as the familiar use of the pronoun *thou*, and is also in accordance with the canons of criticism. "All words and phrases which are remarkably harsh and unharmonious, and not absolutely necessary, should be rejected."
—*Campbell's Philosophy of Rhetoric*, B. II, Ch. 44, Sec. 2, Canon Sixth.

Third Person Singular.

IND. He loves, He loved, He has loved, He had loved, He will love, He will have loved. POR. He may love, He might love, He may have loved, He might have loved. SUBJ. If he love, If he loved.

First Person Plural.

IND. We love, We loved, We have loved, We had loved, We shall love, We shall have loved. POR. We may love, We might love, We may have loved, We might have loved. SUBJ. If we love, If we loved.

Second Person Plural.

IND. You love, You loved, You have loved, You had loved, You will love, You will have loved. POR. You may love, You might love, You may have loved, You might have loved. SUBJ. If you love, If you loved. IMP. Love [ye or you], or Do you love.

Third Person Plural.

IND. They love, They loved, They have loved, They had loved, They will love, They will have loved. POR. They may love, They might love, They may have loved, They might have loved. SUBJ. If they love, If they loved.

SECOND EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the irregular active verb

SEE.

Principal Parts.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperfect Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
See.	Saw.	Seeing.	Seen.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To see.

Perfect Tense. To have seen.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I see,	1. We see,
2. Thou seest,	2. You see,
3. He sees;	3. They see.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	saw,	1. We saw,
2. Thou	sawest,	2. You saw,
3. He	saw;	3. They saw.

Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	have seen,	1. We have seen,
2. Thou	hast seen,	2. You have seen,
3. He	has seen;	3. They have seen.

Pluperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	had seen,	1. We had seen,
2. Thou	hadst seen,	2. You had seen,
3. He	had seen;	3. They had seen.

First-future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	shall see,	1. We shall see,
2. Thou	wilt see,	2. You will see,
3. He	will see;	3. They will see.

Second-future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	shall have seen,	1. We shall have seen,
2. Thou	wilt have seen,	2. You will have seen,
3. He	will have seen;	3. They will have seen.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	may see,	1. We may see,
2. Thou	mayst see,	2. You may see,
3. He	may see;	3. They may see.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	might see,	1. We might see,
2. Thou	mightst see,	2. You might see,
3. He	might see;	3. They might see.

*Perfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I may have seen, | 1. We may have seen, |
| 2. Thou mayst have seen, | 2. You may have seen, |
| 3. He may have seen ; | 3. They may have seen, |

*Pluperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I might have seen, | 1. We might have seen, |
| 2. Thou mightst have seen, | 2. You might have seen, |
| 3. He might have seen ; | 3. They might have seen. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. If I see, | 1. If we see, |
| 2. If thou see, | 2. If you see, |
| 3. If he see ; | 3. If they see. |

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. If I saw, | 1. If we saw, |
| 2. If thou saw, | 2. If you saw, |
| 3. If he saw ; | 3. If they saw. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|------------------|------------------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | 2. See [thou,] or Do thou see. |
| <i>Plural.</i> | 2. See [ye or you,] or Do you see. |

PARTICIPLES.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. <i>The Imperfect.</i> | 2. <i>The Perfect.</i> | 3. <i>The Preperfect.</i> |
| Seeing. | Seen. | Having seen. |

THIRD EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the irregular neuter verb

BE.

Principal Parts.

- | | | | |
|-----------------|------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| <i>Present.</i> | <i>Preterit.</i> | <i>Imperfect Participle.</i> | <i>Perfect Participle.</i> |
| Be. | Was. | Being. | Been. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be.
Perfect Tense. To have been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am,	1. We are,
2. Thou art,	2. You are,
3. He is;	3. They are.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was,	1. We were,
2. Thou wast,*	2. You were,
3. He was;	3. They were.

Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	2. You have been,
3. He has been;	3. They have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had been,	1. We had been,
2. Thou hadst been,	2. You had been,
3. He had been;	3. They had been.

First-future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall be,	1. We shall be,
2. Thou wilt be,	2. You will be,
3. He will be;	3. They will be.

Second-future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I shall have been,	1. We shall have been,
Thou wilt have been,	2. You will have been,
He will have been;	3. They will have been.

* *Wert* is sometimes used indicatively for *wast*; as, "Vainly wert thou woe!"—*rom.* "Waste'er thou art or wert."—*Id.*

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may be,
2. Thou mayst be,
3. He may be;

Plural.

1. We may be,
2. You may be,
3. They may be.

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I might be,
2. Thou mightst be,
3. He might be;

Plural.

1. We might be,
2. You might be,
3. They might be.

*Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may have been,
2. Thou mayst have been,
3. He may have been;

Plural.

1. We may have been,
2. You may have been,
3. They may have been.

*Pluperfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I might have been,
2. Thou mightst have been,
3. He might have been;

Plural.

1. We might have been,
2. You might have been,
3. They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I be,
2. If thou be,
3. If he be;

Plural.

1. If we be,
2. If you be,
3. If they be.

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I were,
2. If thou wert, or were,
3. If he were;

Plural.

1. If we were,
2. If you were,
3. If they were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- Singular.* 2. Be [thou,] or Do thou be.
Plural. 2. Be [ye or you,] or Do you be.

PARTICIPLES.

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|
| 1. <i>The Imperfect.</i>
Being. | 2. <i>The Perfect.</i>
Been. | 3. <i>The Preperfect.</i>
Having been. |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|

II. COMPOUND FORM, ACTIVE OR NEUTER.

Active and *neuter* verbs may also be conjugated, by adding the Imperfect Participle to the auxiliary verb BE, through all its changes; as, I *am writing*; He *is sitting*. This compound form of conjugation denotes a *continuance* of the action or state of being, and is, on many occasions, preferable to the simple form of the verb.

FOURTH EXAMPLE.

Compound form of the irregular active verb

READ.

Principal parts of the simple verb.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperfect Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Rēad.	Rēad.	Rēading.	Rēad.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be reading.

Perfect Tense. To have been reading.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I am reading,
2. Thou art reading,
3. He is reading;

Plural.

1. We are reading,
2. You are reading,
3. They are reading,

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I was reading,
2. Thou wast reading,
3. He was reading;

Plural.

1. We were reading,
2. You were reading,
3. They were reading.

*Perfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I have been reading, | 1. We have been reading, |
| 2. Thou hast been reading, | 2. You have been reading, |
| 3. He has been reading; | 3. They have been reading. |

*Pluperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I had been reading, | 1. We had been reading, |
| 2. Thou hadst been reading, | 2. You had been reading, |
| 3. He had been reading; | 3. They had been reading. |

*First-future Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I shall be reading, | 1. We shall be reading, |
| 2. Thou wilt be reading, | 2. You will be reading, |
| 3. He will be reading; | 3. They will be reading. |

Second-future Tense.

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | 1. I shall have been reading, |
| | 2. Thou wilt have been reading, |
| | 3. He will have been reading; |
| <i>Plural.</i> | 1. We shall have been reading, |
| | 2. You will have been reading, |
| | 3. They will have been reading. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I may be reading, | 1. We may be reading, |
| 2. Thou mayst be reading, | 2. You may be reading, |
| 3. He may be reading; | 3. They may be reading. |

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I might be reading, | 1. We might be reading, |
| 2. Thou mightst be reading, | 2. You might be reading, |
| 3. He might be reading; | 3. They might be reading. |

Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | 1. I may have been reading, |
| | 2. Thou mayst have been reading, |
| | 3. He may have been reading; |

- Plural.* 1. We may have been reading,
 2. You may have been reading,
 3. They may have been reading.

Pluperfect Tense.

- Singular.* 1. I might have been reading,
 2. Thou mightst have been reading,
 3. He might have been reading;

- Plural.* 1. We might have been reading,
 2. You might have been reading,
 3. They might have been reading.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
| 1. If I be reading, | 1. If we be reading, |
| 2. If thou be reading, | 2. If you be reading, |
| 3. If he be reading; | 3. If they be reading. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
| 1. If I were reading, | 1. If we were reading, |
| 2. If thou wert reading, | 2. If you were reading, |
| 3. If he were reading; | 3. If they were reading. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- Sing.* 2. Be [thou] reading, or Do thou be reading.
Plur. 2. Be [ye or you] reading, or Do you be reading.

PARTICIPLES.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. <i>The Imperfect.</i> | 2. <i>The Perfect</i> | 3. <i>The Preperfect.</i> |
| Being reading. | ————— | Having been reading. |

III. FORM OF PASSIVE VERBS.

Passive verbs, in English, are always of a compound form. They are formed from active-transitive verbs, by adding the Perfect Participle to the auxiliary verb BE, through all its changes; thus, from the active-transitive verb *love*, is formed the passive verb *be loved*.

Obs.—In the compound forms of conjugation, the imperfect participle is sometimes taken in a passive sense: as, "The goods are

selling ; The ships *are building*." and the *perfect participle* of an active-intransitive verb, may have a *neuter* signification : as, "I *am come* ; He *is risen* ; They *are fallen*." The former are *passive*, and the latter, *neuter verbs*.

FIFTH EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the regular passive verb
BE LOVED.

Principal Parts of the active verb.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperfect Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle</i>
Love.	Loved	Loving.	Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	To be loved,
<i>Perfect Tense.</i>	To have been loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am loved,	1. We are loved,
2. Thou art loved,	2. You are loved,
3. He is loved,	3. They are loved.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was loved,	1. We were loved,
2. Thou wast loved,	2. You were loved,
3. He was loved ;	3. They were loved.

Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been loved,	1. We have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,	2. You have been loved,
3. He has been loved ;	3. They have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had been loved,	1. We had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,	2. You had been loved,
3. He had been loved ;	3. They had been loved.

First-future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall be loved,	1. We shall be loved,
2. Thou wilt be loved,	2. You will be loved,
3. He will be loved ;	3. They will be loved.

Second-future Tense.

- Singular.* 1. I shall have been loved,
 2. Thou wilt have been loved,
 3. He will have been loved;
Plural. 1. We shall have been loved,
 2. You will have been loved,
 3. They will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
| 1. I may be loved, | 1. We may be loved, |
| 2. Thou mayst be loved, | 2. You may be loved, |
| 3. He may be loved; | 3. They may be loved. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
| 1. I might be loved, | 1. We might be loved, |
| 2. Thou mightst be loved, | 2. You might be loved, |
| 3. He might be loved; | 3. They might be loved. |

Perfect Tense.

- Singular.* 1. I may have been loved,
 2. Thou mayst have been loved,
 3. He may have been loved;
Plural. 1. We may have been loved,
 2. You may have been loved,
 3. They may have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

- Singular.* 1. I might have been loved,
 2. Thou mightst have been loved,
 3. He might have been loved;
Plural. 1. We might have been loved,
 2. You might have been loved,
 3. They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
| 1. If I be loved, | 1. If we be loved, |
| 2. If thou be loved, | 2. If you be loved, |
| 3. If he be loved; | 3. If they be loved. |

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. If I were loved, | 1. If we were loved, |
| 2. If thou wert loved, | 2. If you were loved, |
| 3. If he were loved; | 3. If they were loved. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Be [thou] loved, *or* Do thou be loved.

Plural. 2. Be [ye *or* you] loved, *or* Do you be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

1. *The Imperfect.*

2. *The Perfect.*

3. *The Preperfect.*

Being loved.

Loved.

Having been loved

IV. FORM OF NEGATION.

A verb is conjugated *negatively*, by placing the adverb *not* after it, or after the first auxiliary; but the infinitive and the participles take the negative first: as,—

INF. Not to love, Not to have loved. IND. I love not, *or* I do not love, I loved not, *or* I did not love, I have not loved, I had not loved, I shall not love, I shall not have loved. POT. I may, can, *or* must not love; I might, could, would, *or* should not love; I may, can, *or* must not have loved; I might, could, would, *or* should not have loved. SUBJ. If I love not, If I loved not. PART. Not loving, Not loved, Not having loved.

V. FORM OF QUESTION.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively*, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative after it, or after the first auxiliary: as,—

IND. Do I love? Did I love? Have I loved? Had I loved? Shall I love? Shall I have loved? POT. May, can, *or* must I love? Might, could, would, *or* should I love? May, can, *or* must I have loved? Might, could, would, *or* should I have loved?

VI. FORM OF QUESTION WITH NEGATION.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively and negatively*, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative and the adverb *not* after the verb, or after the first auxiliary: as,—

IND. Do I not love? Did I not love? Have I not loved? Had I not loved? Shall I not love? Shall I not have loved? POR. May, can, or must I not love? Might, could, would, or should I not love? May, can, or must I not have loved? Might, could, would, or should I not have loved?

IRREGULAR VERBS.

An *irregular verb* is a verb that does not form the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*; as, *see, saw, seeing, seen*.

Obs.—The simple irregular verbs, about 130 in number, are nearly all monosyllables. The following is a list of them, as they are now generally used.

LIST OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Part.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abiding,	abode.
Arise,	arose,	arising,	arisen.
Be,	was,	being,	been.
Bear,	bore or bare,	bearing,	borne or born.*
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beaten or beat.
Begin,	began,	beginning,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beholding,	beheld.
Beseech,	besought,	beseeching,	besought.
Beset,	beset,	besetting,	beset.
Bid,	bid or bade,	bidding,	bidden or bid.
Bide,	bode,	biding,	bode.
Bind,	bound,	binding,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting,	bitten or bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bleeding,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blowing,	blown.
Break,	broke,	breaking,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Burst,	burst,	bursting,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	buying,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	casting,	cast.
Chide,	chid,	chiding,	chidden or chid.
Choose,	chose,	choosing,	chosen.
Cleave,†	cleft or clove,	cleaving,	cleft or cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.
Come,	came,	coming,	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	creeping,	crept.
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.
Deal,	dealt,	dealing,	dealt.
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawing,	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drinking,	drunk or drank.
Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.
Eat,	ate or ēat,	eating,	eaten or ēat.
Fall,	fell,	falling,	fallen.

* *Borne* signifies *carried*; *born* signifies *brought forth*.

† *Cleave*, to split, is irregular, as above; *cleave*, to stick, is regular, but *cleave* was formerly used in the preterit, for *cleaved*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Part.</i>	<i>Perfect Participles.</i>
Feed,	fed,	feeding,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	feeling,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.
Find,	found,	finding,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flinging,	flung.
Freeze,	froze,	freezing,	frozen.
Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.
Forbear,	forbore,	forbearing,	forborne.
Forake,	forsook,	forsaking,	forsaken.
Get,	got,	getting,	got or gotten.
Give,	gave,	giving,	given.
Go,	went,	going,	gone.
Grind,	ground,	grinding,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	growing,	grown.
Have,	had,	having,	had.
Hear,	heard,	hearing,	heard.
Hide,	hid,	hiding,	hidden or hid.
Hit,	hit,	hitting,	hit.
Hold,	held,	holding,	held or holden.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurting,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	keeping,	kept.
Know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
Lay,	laid,	laying,	laid.
Lead,	led,	leading,	led.
Leave,	left,	leaving,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lending,	lent.
Let,	let,	letting,	let.
Lie (to rest),	lay,	lying,	lain.
Lose,	lost,	losing,	lost.
Make,	made,	making,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meaning,	meant.
Meet,	met,	meeting,	met.
Outdo,	outdid,	outdoing,	outdone.
Pay,	paid,	paying,	paid.
Put,	put,	putting,	put.
Read,	read,	reading,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rending,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	ridding,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	riding,	ridden or rode.
Ring,	rang or rung,	ringing,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	rising,	risen.
Run,	ran or run,	running,	run.
Say,	said,	saying,	said.
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	seeking,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	selling,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sending,	sent.
Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaking,	shaken.
Shed,	shed,	shedding,	shed.
Shoe,	shod,	shoeing,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shooting,	shot.
Shut,	shut,	shutting,	shut.
Shred,	shred,	shredding,	shred.
Shrink,	shrank or shrank,	shrinking,	shrank or shrunken.
Sing,	sung or sang,	singing,	sung.
Sink,	sunk or sank,	sinking,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Slay,	slaw,	slaying,	slain.
Sleep,	aslep,	asleeping,	aslep.
Slide,	alid,	aliding,	alid or alidden.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Part.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Sling,	slung,	slinging,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slinking,	slunk.
Smite,	smote,	smiting,	smitten or smit.
Speak,	spoke,	speaking,	spoken.
Spend,	spent,	spending,	spent.
Spin,	spun,	spinning,	spun.
Spit,	spit or spat,	spitting,	spit or spitten.
Spread,	spread,	spreading,	spread.
Spring,	sprung or sprang,	springing,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	standing,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stealing,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	sticking,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stinging,	stung.
Stride,	strode,	striding,	stridden or strid.
Strike,	struck,	striking,	struck or stricken.
Strive,	strove,	striving,	striven.
Sweep,	swept,	sweeping,	swept.
Swear,	swore,	swearing,	sworn.
Swim,	swam or swam,	swimming,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swinging,	swung.
Take,	took,	taking,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	tearing,	torn.
Tell,	told,	telling,	told.
Think,	thought,	thinking,	thought.
Throw,	threw,	throwing,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrusting,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	treading,	trodden or trod.
Wear,	wore,	wearing,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	weaving,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	weeping,	wept.
Win,	won,	winning,	won.
Wind,	wound,	winding,	wound.
Wring,	wrung,	wringing,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	writing,	written.

REDUNDANT VERBS.

A *redundant verb* is a verb that forms the preterit or the perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular; as, *thrive, thrived* or *throve, thriving, thrived* or *thriven*.

Obs.—Of this class of verbs, there are about sixty-five, beside sundry derivatives and compounds. The following table exhibits them as they are now generally used, or as they may be used without grammatical impropriety. The preferable forms are placed first.

LIST OF THE REDUNDANT VERBS.*

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Part.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Awake,	awoke or awaked,	awaking,	awoke or awaked.
Belay,	belaid or belayed,	belaying,	belaid or belayed.

* The list inserted by the author contained ninety-seven verbs, of which twenty-two have, in this edition, been placed in the list of simple irregular verbs, and nine omitted.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Part.</i>	<i>Perfect Participles</i>
Bend,	bent or bended,	bending,	bent or bended.
Bereave,	bereft or bereaved,	bereaving,	bereft or beraved.
Bet,	betted or bet,	betting,	betted or bet.
Betide,	betided or betid,	betiding,	betided or betid.
Blend,	blended or blent,	blending,	blended or blent.
Bless,	blessed or blest,	blessing,	blessed or blest.
Build,	built or builded,	building,	built or builded.
Burn,	burned or burnt,	burning,	burned or burnt.
Catch,	caught or catched,	catching,	caught or catched.
Clothe,	clothed or clad,	clothing,	clothed or clad.
Crow,	crowed or crew,	crowing,	crowed.
Curse,	cursed or curst,	cursing,	cursed or curst.
Dare,	dared or durst,	daring,	dared.
Dig,	dug or digged,	digging,	dug or digged.
Dream,	dreamed or drēamt,	dreaming,	dreamed or drēamt.
Dress,	dressed or drest,	dressing,	dressed or drest.
Dwell,	dwelt or dwelled,	dwelling,	dwelt or dwelled.
Geld,	gelded or gelt,	gelding,	gelded or gelt.
Gild,	gilded or gilt,	gilding,	gilded or gilt.
Gird,	girt or girded,	girding,	girt or girded.
Grave,	graved,	graving,	graven or graved.
Hang,	hanged or hung,	hanging,	hanged or hung.
Heave,	heaved or hove,	heaving,	heaved or hoven.*
Hew,	hewed,	hewing,	hewed or hewn.
Kneel,	knelt or kneeled,	kneeling,	knelt or kneeled.
Knit,	knit or knitted,	knitting,	knit or knitted.
Lade,	laded,	lading,	laded or laden.
Lean,	leaned or leant,	leaning,	leaned or leant.
Leap,	leaped or leapt,	leaping,	leaped or leapt.
Learn,	learned or learnt,	learning,	learned or learnt.
Light,	lighted or lit,	lighting,	lighted or lit.
Mow,	mowed,	mowing,	mowed or mown.
Pen (<i>to coop</i>),	penned or pent,	penning,	penned or pent.
Quit,	quitted or quit,	quitting,	quitted or quit.
Rap,	rapped,	rapping,	rapped or rapt.
Reave,	reft or reaved,	reaving,	reft or reaved.
Rive,	rived,	riying,	riven or rived.
Roast,	roast or roasted,	roasting,	roast or roasted.
Saw,	sawed,	sawing,	sawed or sawn.
Seethe,	seethed or sod,*	seething,	seethed or sodden.
Shape,	shaped,	shaping,	shaped or shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaving,	shaved or shaven.
Shear,	sheared or shore,	shearing,	sheared or shorn.
Shine,	shone or shined,	shining,	shone or shined.
Show,	showed,	showing,	shown or showed.
Slit,	slit or slitted,	slitting,	slit or slitted.
Smell,	smelled or smelt,	smelling,	smelled or smelt.
Sow,	sowed,	sowing,	sown or sowed.
Speed,	sped or speeded,	speeding,	sped or speeded.
Spell,	spelled or spelt,	spelling,	spelled or spelt.
Spill,	spilled or spilt,	spilling,	spilled or spilt.
Split,	split or splitted,	splitting,	split or splitted.
Spoil,	spoiled or spoilt,	spoiling,	spoiled or spoilt.
Stave,	staved or stove,	staving,	staved or stove.
Stay,	staid or stayed,	staying,	staid or stayed.
String,	strung,	stringing,	strung or stringed.
Strow,	strowed,	strowing,	strowed or strown.

From both lists as regular. The remaining sixty-six include all that in a school text-book, it seems proper to retain; for, whatever authority may exist for considering such forms as blowed, freezeed, bursted, weeped, etc., as sanctioned by past usage [see Brown's Grammar of Grammars], they cannot be deemed as grammatically proper at the present time, when they have become entirely obsolete.—Editor.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Part.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Sweat,	sweat or sweated,	sweating,	sweat or sweated.
Swell,	swelled,	swelling,	swelled or swollen.
Thrive,	throve or thrived,	thriving,	thriven or thrived.
Wax,	waxed,	waxing,	waxed or waxen.
Wet,	wet or wetted,	wetting,	wet or wetted.
Wont,	wont,	wonting,	wont or wonted.
Work,	worked or wrought,	working,	worked or wrought.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

A *defective verb* is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few of the moods and tenses; as, *beware, ought, quoth*.

Obs.—When any of the principal parts of a verb are wanting, the tenses usually derived from those parts are also, of course, wanting. All the auxiliaries, except *do, be, and have*, are defective; but, as auxiliaries, they become parts of other verbs, and do not need the parts which are technically said to be “wanting.” The following brief catalogue contains all our defective verbs, except *methinks*, with its preterit *methought*, which is not only defective, but impersonal, irregular, and deservedly obsolescent.

LIST OF THE DEFECTIVE VERBS.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>
Beware,	_____.	Shall,	should.
Oan,	could.	Will,	would.
May,	might.	Quoth,	quoth.
Must,	must.	Wis,	wist.
Ought,	ought.	Wit,	wot.

CHAPTER VII.—OF PARTICIPLES.

A Participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; and is generally formed by adding *ing, d, or ed*, to the verb: thus, from the verb *rule*, are formed three participles, two simple and one compound; as, 1. *ruling*, 2. *ruled*, 3. *having ruled*.

CLASSES.

English verbs have severally three participles;

the *First* or *Imperfect*, the *Second* or *Perfect*, and the *Third* or *Preperfect*.*

I. The *Imperfect participle* is that which ends commonly in *ing*, and implies a *continuance* of the being, action, or passion; as, *being, loving, seeing, writing—being loved, being seen, being writing*.

II. The *Perfect participle* is that which ends commonly in *ed* or *en*, and implies a *completion* of the being, action, or passion; as, *been, loved, seen, written*.

III. The *Preperfect participle* is that which takes the sign *having*, and implies a *previous completion* of the being, action, or passion; as, *having loved, having seen, having written—having been loved, having been writing, having been written*.

The *First* or *Imperfect Participle*, when simple, is always formed by adding *ing* to the radical verb; as, *look, looking*: when compound, it is formed by prefixing *being* to some other simple participle; as, *being reading, being read*.

The *Second* or *Perfect Participle* is always simple, and is regularly formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the radical verb: those verbs from which it is formed otherwise, are inserted in the lists as being irregular or redundant.

The *Third* or *Preperfect Participle* is always compound, and is formed by prefixing *having* to the perfect, when the compound is double, and *having been* to the perfect or the imperfect, when the compound is triple; as, *having spoken, having been spoken, having been speaking*.

Obs. 1.—Participles often become *adjectives*, and are construed before nouns to denote quality. The terms so converted form the class of participial adjectives. Words of a participial form may be regarded as adjectives: 1. When they denote something customary

* See copious observations on the names and properties of the participles, in the *Institutes of English Grammar*, under the Etymology of this part of speech; and remarks still more extended in the *Grammar of English Grammars*, pp. 392-397.

or habitual, rather than a transient act or state; as, *A lying rogue*, i. e., one addicted to lying. 2. When they admit adverbs of comparison; as, *A more learned man*. 3. When they are compounded with something that does not belong to the verb; as, *unfeeling*, *unfelt*. Adjectives are generally placed before their nouns: participles, after them.

Obs. 2.—Participles in *ing* often become *nouns*. When preceded by an article, an adjective, or a noun or pronoun of the possessive case, they are construed as nouns, and ought to take no regimen, or object after them. A participle immediately preceded by a preposition, is not converted into a noun, and therefore retains its regimen; as, "I thank you for *helping him*." This construction of the participle corresponds with the Latin gerund.

Obs. 3.—To distinguish the participle from the participial noun, the learner should observe the following *four* things: 1. *Nouns* take articles and adjectives before them; *participles*, as such, do not. 2. *Nouns* may govern the possessive case, but not the objective; *participles* may govern the objective case, but not the possessive. 3. *Nouns* may be the subjects or objects of verbs; *participles* cannot—or, at least, the propriety of any such use of them, is doubtful. 4. *Participial nouns* express actions as things; *participles* refer actions to their agents or recipients.

Obs. 4.—To distinguish the perfect participle from the preterit verb of the same form, observe the *sense*, and see which of the auxiliary forms will express it: thus *loved* for *being loved*, is a participle; but *loved* for *did love*, is a preterit verb.

ANALYSIS.

An adjective, participle, noun, or pronoun, modifying the predicate of a sentence and relating to the subject, is called an *attribute*; as, "Gold is *yellow*."—"Cain was a *murderer*."—"The sun is *shining*."

Obs. 1.—The verb that connects the subject and the attribute, must be active-intransitive, passive, or neuter. It is sometimes called the *copula*, because it *couples* or joins the other principal parts of the sentence.

Obs. 2.—The verb *be* generally affirms only the connection between the subject and the attribute. When the latter is a noun, it may express 1. *Class*; as, "Cain was a *murderer*." 2. *Identity*; as, "Cain was the murderer of Abel." 3. *Name*; as, "The child was called *John*."

Obs. 3.—*Class*, *identity*, *name*, or *quality* may be attributed to

the subject in various ways ; as, 1. By affirming directly a connection, as in the preceding examples ; 2. By affirming it to belong to the subject, in connection with a particular act or state of being ; as, "She *looked* a goddess, and she *walked* a queen."—"The sun *stood* still." 3. By affirming a connection, but not its previous existence ; as, "He *has become* a scholar." 4. By affirming not only the connection, but the *cause* or *manner* by which it was established ; as, "He *was elected* President."—"The twig *has grown* a tree."

Obs. 4.—The attribute is often used *indefinitely*, that is, without reference to a particular subject ; as, "To be *good* is to be *happy*."—"To be a *poet* requires genius." In analyzing, this may be called the *indefinite attribute*.

Obs. 5.—The attribute, when a noun or a pronoun, is in the same case as the subject ; as, "It is *I*, be not afraid."

Obs. 6.—In analyzing a sentence, it will be convenient to treat the attribute as a distinct part, keeping in view that it is dependent upon the simple predicate, or verb, and forms a part of the *general predicate*.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

EXERCISE I.—*Analyze the following sentences as in the preceding exercises, and point out the attributes and their adjuncts.*

EXAMPLE.—"Filial ingratitude is a shameful crime."

This is a simple declarative sentence ; the subject is *ingratitude* ; the predicate is *is* ; and the attribute, *crime*. The adjunct of the subject is *filial* ; the predicate has no adjuncts ; the adjuncts of the attribute are *a* and *shameful*.

Honesty is the best policy. Napoleon was a great General. Washington was a true patriot. He was elected the first president. The Bible is God's holy word. New York is a great commercial city. My brother has been appointed inspector. Aristides was styled the Just. Peter the Great, who built St. Petersburg, was a remarkable man. He returned a friend, who came a foe. The flowers which my sister plucked yesterday, still remain fresh. Art is long, and time is fleeting. Can that be the man who deceived me ? He might have been guilty, but no sufficient proof could be found. Virtue is bold, and goodness never fearful. Frequent and loud were the maiden's cries. How gorgeous seems the setting sun ! What evil is this which he has committed ? Thomas Jefferson, who wrote the Declaration, was the third president. Gen. Lincoln was taken prisoner. Religious instruction is very necessary in childhood. Vicious habits infallibly lead to ruin. In spring, the weather becomes warm. David the Psalmist was King of Israel. John the Baptist was the forerunner of Christ. John Smith was exploring Virginia, when he was taken prisoner. That office is considered by some a sinecure. The Lord is my shepherd ; I shall *not want*. Who is this King of glory ? He that loveth pleasure, *shall be a poor man*. The wise in heart shall be called prudent.

The seed which was planted, has become a huge tree. Everything that we do often, we do easily. Repeated acts thus become habits. Habit has been called "second nature." The memory of mischief is no desirable fame. We, who never were his favorites, did not expect these attentions. A crown of glory are his hoary locks! I would act the same part, if I were he. A lie is an intention to deceive. The scholar who plays truant, is guilty of falsehood; because he deceives his parents. Prompting during recitation is another example of falsehood.

EXERCISE II.—*Parse each word in the above sentences as in the previous exercises; state in addition the class and modifications of the verbs.*

CHAPTER VIII.—OF ADVERBS.

An Adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner: as, They are *now here*, studying *very diligently*.

Obs.—Adverbs briefly express what would otherwise require several words: as, *here*, for *in this place*. There are several customary combinations of short words which are used adverbially, and which some grammarians do not analyze in parsing: as, *Not at all*, *at length*, *in vain*.

CLASSES.

Adverbs may be reduced to four general classes; namely, adverbs of *time*, of *place*, of *degree*, and of *manner*.

I. Adverbs of *time* are those which answer to the question, *When? How long? How soon? or How often?* including these which ask. Adverbs of time may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of time present: as, *Now, yet, to-day, instantly*.
2. Of time past: as, *Already, lately, heretofore, since, ago*.
3. Of time to come: as, *To-morrow, hereafter, henceforth*.
4. Of time relative: as, *When, then, before, after, while*.
5. Of time absolute: as, *Always, ever, never*.
6. Of time repeated: as, *Often, seldom, daily, thrice*.
7. Of the order of time: as, *First, secondly, thirdly, etc.*

II. Adverbs of *place*, are those which answer to the question, *Where? Whither? Whence?* or *Whereabout?* including these which ask. Adverbs of place may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of place in which: as, *Where, here, there, somewhere.*
2. Of place to which: as, *Whither, hither, thither.*
3. Of place from which: as, *Whence, hence, thence.*
4. Of the order of place: as, *First, secondly, thirdly.*

III. Adverbs of *degree*, are those which answer to the question, *How much? How little?* or, to the idea of *more or less*. Adverbs of degree may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of excess or abundance: as, *Much, chiefly, fully.*
2. Of equality: as, *Enough, sufficiently, equally, so, as.*
3. Of deficiency, or abatement: as, *Little, scarcely, hardly.*
4. Of quantity: as, *How, ever so, somewhat.*

IV. Adverbs of *manner*, are those which answer to the question, *How?* or, by affirming, denying, or doubting, show how a subject is regarded. Adverbs of manner may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of quality: as, *Well, ill, wisely, foolishly, justly, and many others formed by adding *ly* to adjectives of quality.*
2. Of affirmation: as, *Yes, yea, verily, truly, indeed, surely.*
3. Of negation: as, *No, nay, not, nowise.*
4. Of doubt: as, *Perhaps, haply, possibly, perchance.*
5. Of mode: as, *Thus, so, somehow, like, else, otherwise.*
6. Of cause: as, *Why, wherefore, therefore.*

Obs.—The adverbs *here, there, and where*, when prefixed to prepositions, have the force of pronouns; as, *whereby*, for *by which*. Compounds of this kind are, however, commonly reckoned adverbs.

Adverbs sometimes perform the office of conjunctions, and serve to connect sentences, as well as to express some circumstance of time, place, degree, or manner; adverbs that are so used, are called *conjunctive adverbs*: as, *When, where, after, before, since, therefore, etc.*

MODIFICATIONS.

Adverbs have no modifications, except that a

few are compared after the manner of adjectives : as, *Soon, sooner, soonest* ;—*often, oftener, oftenest* ;—*long, longer, longest*.

The following are irregularly compared : *well, better, best* ;—*badly or ill, worse, worst* ;—*little, less, least* ;—*much, more, most* ;—*far, farther, furthest* ;—*forth, further, furthest*.

Obs. 1.—Most adverbs of *quality* will admit the comparative adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, before them : as, *wisely, more wisely, most wisely*,—*culpably, less culpably, least culpably*. But these should be parsed separately.

Obs. 2.—As comparison does not belong to adverbs in general, it should not be mentioned in parsing, except in the case of those few which are varied by it.

CHAPTER IX.—OF CONJUNCTIONS.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected : as, “Thou *and* he are happy, *because* you are good.”—*Mur.*

CLASSES.

Conjunctions are divided into two general classes, *copulative* and *disjunctive* ; and some of each of these sorts are *corresponsive*.

I. A *copulative conjunction* is a conjunction that denotes an addition, a cause, or a supposition : as, “He *and* I shall not dispute ; *for, if* he has any choice, I shall readily grant it.”

II. A *disjunctive conjunction* is a conjunction that denotes opposition of meaning : as, “Be not overcome [by] evil, *but* overcome evil with good.”—*Rom.*, xii, 21.

III. The *corresponsive conjunctions* are those which are used in pairs, so that one refers or an-

swers to an other : as, "John came *neither* eating *nor* drinking."—*Matt.*, xi, 18.

The following are the principal conjunctions:—

1. Copulative; *And, as, both, because, even, for, if, that, then, since, seeing, so.*

2. Disjunctive; *Or, nor, either, neither, than, though, although, yet, but, except, whether, lest, unless, save, notwithstanding.*

3. Corresponsive; *Both—and; as—as; as—so; if—then; either—or; neither—nor; whether—or; though, or although—yet.*

CHAPTER X.—OF PREPOSITIONS.

A Preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun: as, The paper lies *before* me *on* the desk.

The following, are the principal prepositions: *Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid or amidst, among or amongst, around, at, athwart;—before, behind, below, beneath, beside or besides, between or betwixt, beyond, by;—concerning;—down, during;—except, excepting;—for, from;—in, into;—notwithstanding;—of, off, on, out-of, over, overthwart;—past;—round;—since;—through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward or towards;—under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon;—with, within, without.*

Obs.—The words in the preceding list are generally prepositions. But when any of them are employed without a subsequent term of relation they are adverbs. *For*, when it signifies *because*, is a conjunction; *without*, when used for *unless*, and *notwithstanding*, when placed before a nominative, are usually referred to the class of conjunctions also.

CHAPTER XI.—OF INTERJECTIONS.

An Interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind: as, *Oh! alas!*

The following are the principal interjections, arranged according to the emotions which they are generally intended to indicate: 1. Joy; *igh! hey! io!*—2. Sorrow; *oh! ah! alas! alack! welladay!*—3. Wonder; *heigh! ha! strange!*—4. Wishing or earnestness; *O!*—5. Pain: *oh! ah! eh!*—6. Contempt; *pugh! poh! pshaw! pish! tush! tut!*—7. Aversion; *foh! fie! off! begone! avaunt!*—8. Calling aloud; *ho! soho! hollo!*—9. Exultation; *aha! huzza! heyday! hurrah!*—10. Laughter; *ha, ha, ha.*—11. Salutation; *welcome! hail! all hail!*—12. Calling to attention; *lo! behold! look! see! hark!*—13. Calling to silence; *hush! hist! mum!*—14. Surprise; *oh! ha! hah! what!*—15. Languor; *heigh-ho!*—16. Stopping; *avast! whok!*

ANALYSIS.

The *principal parts* of a sentence are the SUBJECT and the PREDICATE; the OBJECT or ATTRIBUTE, if there be either, forming a part of the latter.

The other parts may be, 1. *Primary* or *secondary adjuncts*; 2. Words used to express *relation* or *connection*; 3. *Independent words*.

Adjuncts, as to their nature, are *adjective, adverbial, or explanatory*.

Adjuncts are adjective or adverbial when they are used as adjectives or adverbs.

Explanatory adjuncts are those used to explain

a preceding noun or pronoun ; as, "The emperor *Napoleon*."—"Paul the *Apostle*."—"We, the *people* of the United States."

Adjuncts, as to their form, are *words, phrases, or clauses*.

A *phrase* is a combination of two or more words, expressing some relation of ideas, but no entire proposition ; as, "Of a good disposition."—"By the means appointed."

A phrase may be used in three ways ; namely,

1. As one of the principal parts of a sentence ;
2. As an adjunct ; 3. It may be independent.

When a phrase is used as an adjunct, it is *adjective, adverbial, or explanatory*.

A phrase, used as a noun, is called a *substantive phrase* ; as, "*To do good* is the duty of all."

An *independent phrase* is one that is not related to, or connected with, any word in the rest of the sentence ; as, "*He failing*, who shall meet success?"

The *principal part* of a phrase is that on which all the others depend ; as, "Under every *misfortune*."—"Having *exhausted* every expedient."

Obs. 1.—A preposition that introduces a phrase, serves only to express the relation between the principal part, and the word of the sentence, on which the phrase depends.

Obs. 2.—Phrases are also classified as to their form, depending upon the *introducing word*, or the *principal part* ; thus :

1. A phrase, introduced by a preposition, is called a *prepositional phrase* ; as, "By doing good."—"Of great learning."
2. A phrase, the principal part of which is a verb in the infinitive mood, is called an *infinitive phrase* ; as, "*To be good*."
3. A phrase, the principal part of which is a participle, is called a *participial phrase* ; as, "A measure *founded on justice*."

Obs. 3.—A phrase, used as a subject or object, can, with strict adherence to grammatical rules, be only *infinitive* in form ; as, "*To disobey parents* is disgraceful."—"William loves to study *grammar*." (See *Obs. 4*, Rule XIV.)

SYNOPSIS OF ANALYSIS

SENTENCES.	{	Simple,	{	Declarative.	
		Complex,		Interrogative.	
		Compound,		Imperative.	
				Explanatory.	

Clauses.	{	Simple,	{	Dependent,
		Complex,		Independent.
		Compound,		

Propositions	{	Subject—Word, Phrase, or Clause.	
or Simple		Predicate, or Verb.	
Sentences.		Object or Attribute—Word, Phrase, or Clause.	

Adjuncts.	{	Of Sub.	{	Words,	{	Simple,	{	Adjective
		Of Pred.		Phrases,		Complex,		Adverbial
		Of Obj. or Att.		or Clauses.		Compound,		Explanat.

EXERCISE.—*Analyze the following sentences, and point out the explanatory adjuncts and the phrases; parse each word as in the preceding exercises.*

EXAMPLE.—“Diogenes, the Greek philosopher, lived in a tub.”

This is a simple declarative sentence; the subject is *Diogenes*; the predicate, *lived*; *philosopher* is an explanatory adjunct of the subject; *the* and *Greek* are adjuncts of *philosopher*. The adjunct of *lived* is the adverbial phrase, *in a tub*. The principal part of the phrase is *tub*, of which *a* is an adjunct.

The butterfly, child of the summer, flutters among the flowers. Mahomet was a native of Mecca, a city in Arabia. The Cabots, natives of Venice, were the first discoverers of North America. Spain was, at one time, the wealthiest country of Europe. In the path of life, no one is constantly regaled with flowers. Industry is needful in every condition of life: the price of all improvement is labor. In the fifth century, the Franks, a people of Germany, invaded France. The book which William has lost, was a present from his brother Henry. When Alfred the Great ascended the throne of England, he was greatly harassed by the Danes, a piratical people from Scandinavia. A brave man, he would not wantonly injure others.

PART III.

S Y N T A X .

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement, of words in sentences.

The *relation* of words, is their dependence, or connexion, according to the sense.

The *agreement* of words, is their similarity in person, number, gender, case, mood, tense, or form.

The *government* of words, is that power which one word has over another, to cause it to assume some particular modification.

The *arrangement* of words, is their collocation, or relative position, in a sentence.

The leading principles to be observed in the construction of sentences, or to be applied in their analysis by Syntactical Parsing, are embraced in the following *twenty-six Rules of Syntax*.

CHAPTER I.—OF RELATION AND AGREEMENT.

RULE I.—ARTICLES.

Articles relate to the nouns which they limit: as, "At *a* little distance from *the* ruins of *the* abbey, stands *an* aged elm."

Obs. 1.—Articles often relate to nouns *understood*; as, "The [*river*] Thames."—"Pliny the younger" [*man*].—"The honourable [*body*] the Legislature."—"The animal [*world*] and the vegetable world."—"The Old [*Testament*] and the New Testament."

Obs. 2.—Articles belong *before* their nouns; but the definite *article* and an *adjective* seem sometimes to be placed *after* the *noun* to which they both relate: as, "Section *the* Fourth;"—

"Henry *the* Eighth." Such examples, however, may be supposed elliptical; and, if they are so, an article cannot be placed after its noun, nor can two articles ever relate to one and the same noun.

Obs. 3.—The definite article is often prefixed to *comparatives* and *superlatives*; and its effect is, (as Murray observes,) "to mark the degree *the* more strongly, and to define it *the* more precisely:" as, "*The* oftener I see him, *the* more I respect him."—"A constitution *the* most fit."—"A claim *the* strongest, and *the* most easily comprehended." In these cases, the article seems to relate only to the *adjective* or *adverb* following it; but, after the adjective, the noun may be supplied.

Obs. 4.—The article *the* is applied to nouns of both numbers: as, *The* man, *the* men;—*The* good boy, *the* good boys.

Obs. 5.—*An* or *a* implies one, and is prefixed to nouns of the singular number only; as, *A* man, *a* good boy.

Obs. 6.—*An* or *a* is sometimes prefixed to an adjective of number, when the noun following is plural: as, *A* few days,—*a* hundred sheep. Here also the article relates only to the *adjective*; unless *few*, *hundred*, *etc.*, are *nouns* with *of* understood after them.

Obs. 7.—*A*, as prefixed to participles in *ing*, or used in composition, is a *preposition*; being, probably, the French *à*, signifying *to*, *at*, *on*, *in*, or *of*; as, "He is gone *a* hunting."—"They burst out *a* laughing."—"She lies *a*-bed all day."

Obs. 8.—*An* is sometimes a *conjunction*, signifying *if*; as, "Nay, *an* thou'lt mouth, I'll rant as well as thou."—*Shak.*

RULE II.—NOMINATIVES.

A Noun or a Pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case: as, "I know *thou* sayst it: says thy *life* the same?"

Obs. 1.—Every nominative belongs to some verb, unless it be put in *apposition* according to Rule 3d, *after a verb* according to Rule 21st, or *absolute* according to Rule 25th.

Obs. 2.—The subject, or nominative, is generally placed *before* the verb; as, "*Peace* dawned upon his mind."—*Johnson*. "*What* is written in the law."—*Bible*.

Obs. 3.—But, in the following nine cases, the subject is placed *after* the verb, or after the first auxiliary:—

1. When a question is asked without an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case; as, "Shall *mortals* be implacable?"—"What art *thou* doing?"—*Hooke*.

2. When the verb is in the imperative mood; as, "*Go thou*."

3. When an earnest wish, or other strong feeling, is expressed; as, "*May she* be happy!"—"How were *we* struck!"—*Young*.

4. When a supposition is made without a conjunction; as, "Were *it* true, it would not injure us."

5. When *neither* or *nor*, signifying *and not*, precedes the verb; as, "*This was* his fear; *nor was* his apprehension groundless."

6. When, for the sake of emphasis, some word or words are

placed before the verb, which more naturally come after it; as, "Here am *I*."—"Narrow is the *way*."—"Silver and gold have *I* none."—*Bible*.

7. When the verb has no regimen, and is itself emphatical; as, "*Echo* the mountains round."—*Thompson*.

8. When the verbs *say*, *think*, *reply*, and the like, introduce the parts of a dialogue; as, "'Son of affliction,' said *Omar*, 'who art thou?' 'My name,' replied the *stranger*, 'is *Hassan*.'"—*Johnson*.

9. When the adverb *there* precedes the verb; as, "There lived a *man*."—*Montgomery*. "There needs no *proof* of this."

RULE III.—APPOSITION.

A Noun or a personal Pronoun, used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case: as,

"But *he*, our gracious *Master*, kind as just;

"Knowing our frame, remembers we are dust."

Obs. 1.—*Apposition* is the using of different words or appellations to designate the same thing. *Apposition* also denotes the relation which exists between the words which are so employed. In parsing, the rule of apposition should be applied only to the *explanatory term*; for the case of the principal word depends on its relation to the rest of the sentence, and comes under some other rule.

Obs. 2.—This rule involves a variety of forms of expression, as may be seen by the following examples: "I, thy *schoolmaster*, have made thee profit."—*Shak*. "I, even *I*, am he."—*Isaiah*, xliii. "I am the Lord, your *Holy One*, the *Creator* of Israel, your *King*."—*Id*. "They shall every *man* turn to his own people."—*Id*. "Behold, I create Jerusalem a *rejoicing*, and her people a *joy*."—*Id*. "Righteousness and peace have kissed *each other*."—*Psalms*. "That ye love *one* another."—*N. Test*. "Be ye helpers *one* of another."—*Id*. "To make him *king*."—*Id*. "With modesty thy *guide*."—*Pope*.

Obs. 3.—The explanatory word is sometimes *placed first*, especially among the poets; as,

"From bright'ning fields of ether fair disclos'd,

"*Child* of the sun, refulgent *Summer* comes."—*Thomson*.

Obs. 4.—The pronouns of the first and second persons, are often prefixed to nouns merely to distinguish their *person*. In this case of apposition, the words are not separated by a comma; and *either* of them may be taken as the explanatory term: as, "*I John* saw these things."—"His praise, *ye brooks*, attune." So also, when two or more nouns form one proper name; as, *John Horne Tooke*.

Obs. 5.—When two or more nouns of the *possessive* case are put in apposition, the possessive termination added to one, denotes the *case of both or all*: as, "His *brother Philip's wife*;"—"John

Baptist's head;"—"At my friend Johnson's, the bookseller." By a repetition of the possessive sign, a distinct governing noun is implied, and the apposition is destroyed.

Obs. 6.—When an object acquires a new name or character from the action of a verb, the new appellation is put in *apposition* with the object of the active verb, and in the nominative after the passive: as, "They named the child *John*;"—"The child was named *John*."—"They elected *him president*;"—"He was elected *president*."

RULE IV.—ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns: as, "He is a *wise man*, though *he* is *young*."

Obs. 1.—When an adjective follows a verb, it generally relates to the *subject* going before; as, "*I* am glad that the door is made *wide*."

Obs. 2.—An adjective sometimes relates to a phrase or sentence, which is substituted for a noun; as, "*That he should refuse*, is not *strange*."

Obs. 3.—Adjectives preceded by the definite article, are often used, by ellipsis, as having the force of *nouns*. They designate those classes of objects which are characterized by the qualities they express. They are mostly confined to the plural number, and refer to *persons*, *places*, or *things*, understood; as, "The good [*persons*] must merit God's peculiar care."—*Pope*.

Obs. 4.—By an ellipsis of the noun, an adjective with a preposition before it, is sometimes equivalent to an *adverb*; as, "*In particular*;" that is, *in a particular manner*; equivalent to *particularly*. In parsing, supply the ellipsis. [See *Obs. 2d*, under Rule *xxii.*]

Obs. 5.—Adjectives that imply unity or plurality, must agree with their nouns in number; as, "*That sort, those sorts*."

Obs. 6.—When the adjective is necessarily *plural*, the noun should be made so too; as, "*Twenty pounds*;" not, "*Twenty pound*." In some peculiar phrases, this rule appears to be disregarded; as, "*Twenty sail* of vessels;"—"A *hundred head* of cattle;"—"Two *hundred pennyworth* of bread."

Obs. 7.—To denote a *collective number*, a singular adjective may precede a plural one; as, "*One hundred men*;"—"Every six weeks."

Obs. 8.—To denote plurality, the adjective *many* may, in like manner, precede *an* or *a*, with a singular noun; as,

"Full *many* a flower is born to blush unseen."—*Gray*.

Obs. 9.—The reciprocal expression, *one an other*, should not be applied to *two* objects, nor *each other*, or *one the other*, to *more* than two: because reciprocity between two is some act or relation of each or one to *the other*, which is an objective definite, and not of one to *an other*, which is indefinite; but reciprocity among three or more is of one, each, or every one, not to *one other*, solely, or to *the other*, definitely, but to *others*, a plurality, or to *an other*, taken indefinitely and implying this plurality.

Obs. 10.—The *comparative* degree can only be used in reference to two objects, or classes of objects; the *superlative* compares one or more things with all others of the same class, whether few or many; as, "Edward is *taller* than James; he is the *largest* of my scholars."

RULE V.—PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender: as, "This is the friend of *whom* I spoke; *he* has just arrived."—"This is the book *which* I bought; *it* is an excellent work."—"Ye, therefore, *who* love mercy, teach *your* sons to love *it* too."—*Cowper*.

Obs. 1.—When the antecedent is used *figuratively*, the pronoun often agrees with it in the figurative, and not in the literal sense; as, "Grim *Darkness* furls *his* leaden shroud." [See *Syllepsis* among the figures of Syntax.]

Obs. 2.—The pronoun *we* is used by the speaker to represent himself and others, and is therefore plural. But it is sometimes used, by a sort of fiction, instead of the singular, to intimate that the speaker or writer is not alone in his opinions.

Obs. 3.—The pronoun *you*, though originally and properly plural, is now generally applied alike to one person or more. [See *Inst. E. Gramm.*, pp. 56 and 137.]

Obs. 4.—A pronoun sometimes represents a *phrase* or *sentence*, or a *quality* expressed before by an adjective. In this case, the pronoun is always in the third person, singular, neuter: as, "*She* is *very* handsome; and *she* has the misfortune to know *it*."

Obs. 5.—The pronoun *it* is often used without a definite reference to any antecedent; and, still more frequently, it refers to something mentioned in the subsequent part of the sentence. This pronoun is a necessary *expletive* at the commencement of a sentence, in which the verb is followed by a clause which, by transposition, may be made the subject to the verb; as, "*It* is impossible to please every one."—"It was requisite *that the papers should be sent*."

Obs. 6.—In familiar language, the relative in the objective case is frequently *understood*; as, "Here is the letter [*which*] I received." The omission of the relative in the nominative case, is inelegant; as, "This is the worst thing [*that*] could happen."

RULE VI.—PRONOUNS.

When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the Pronoun must agree with it, in the plural number: as, "The *council* were divided in *their* sentiments."

Obs. 1.—A collective noun conveying the idea of *unity* requires a pronoun in the third person, singular, neuter; as, “The *nation* will enforce *its* laws.”

Obs. 2.—Most collective nouns of the neuter gender, may take the regular *plural form*, and be represented by a pronoun in the third person, plural, neuter; as, “The *nations* will enforce *their* laws.”

RULE VII.—PRONOUNS.

When a Pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number: as, “*James and John* will favour us with *their* company.”

Obs. 1.—When the antecedents are of *different persons*, the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third; as, “John, and thou, and I, are attached to *our* country.”—“John and thou are attached to *your* country.”

Obs. 2.—The *gender* of pronouns, except in the third person singular, is distinguished only by their antecedents. In expressing that of a pronoun which has antecedents of *different genders*, the masculine should be preferred to the feminine, and the feminine to the neuter.

RULE VIII.—PRONOUNS.

When a Pronoun has two or more *singular* antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number: as, “*James or John* will favour us with *his* company.”

Obs.—When antecedents of different persons, numbers, or genders, are connected by *or* or *nor*, they cannot be represented by a pronoun that is not applicable to each of them.

RULE IX.—VERBS.

A finite Verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number: as, “*I know*; thou *knowst*, or *knowest*; he *knows*, or *knoweth*.” “The bird *flies*; the birds *fly*.”

Obs. 1.—The *adjuncts* of the nominative, do not control its agreement with the verb; as, “Six months’ *interest* was due.”—“The *propriety* of these rules is evident.”—“The *mill*, with all its appearances, *was destroyed*.”

Obs. 2.—The *infinitive mood*, a *phrase*, or a *sentence*, is sometimes the subject to a verb: a subject of this kind, however composed, if it is taken as one whole, requires a verb in the third person, singular; as, “*To lie* is base.”—“*To see the sun* is pleasant.”—“That you *have violated the law*, is evident.”—“For what purpose they *embarked*, is not yet known.”

Obs. 3.—A *neuter verb* between two nominatives should be made to agree with that which precedes it; as, "Words are wind;" except when the terms are rhetorically transposed, and the proper subject is put after the verb; as, "His pavilion *were* dark waters and thick clouds."—"Who *art* thou?"

Obs. 4.—When the verb has *different forms*, that form should be adopted which is the most consistent with present and reputable usage, in the style employed: thus, to say familiarly, "The clock *hath* stricken,"—"Thou *laughedst* and *talkedst*, when thou *oughtest* to have been silent,"—"He *readeth* and *writeth*, but he *doth* not cipher,"—would be no better, than to use, *don't, won't, can't, shan't, and didn't*, in preaching.

Obs. 5.—The nominative to a verb in the imperative mood, is generally *omitted*; as, "Guide [*thou*] my lonely way." With the verb in all the other personal tenses, the nominative must be expressed: except where two or more verbs are connected in the same construction; as, "They bud, blow, wither, fall, and die."

RULE X.—VERBS.

When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the Verb must agree with it in the plural number: as, "The council *were* divided."

Obs.—A collective noun conveying the idea of *unity*, requires a verb in the third person, singular; and generally admits also the regular plural construction: as, "His *army was* defeated."—"His *armies were* defeated."

RULE XI.—VERBS.

When a Verb has two or more nominatives connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number: as,

"Judges *and* senates *have been bought* for gold; Esteem *and* love *were* never to be sold."—*Pope*.

Obs. 1.—The conjunction is sometimes *understood*; as, "Art, empire, earth itself, to change are doomed."—*Beattie*.

Obs. 2.—When the nouns connected are descriptive of one and the *same thing*, they are in *apposition*, and do not require a plural verb: as, "This philosopher and poet *was* banished from his country."

Obs. 3.—When the same nominative is *repeated*, the words are in *apposition*, and do not require a plural verb: as,

"Love, and love only, *is* the loan for love."—*Young*.

Obs. 4.—When the verb *separates* its nominatives, it agrees with *that* which precedes it, and is understood to the rest; as,

—"Forth in the pleasing spring
Thy beauty *walks*, thy tenderness, and love."—*Thomson*.

Obs. 5.—When two subjects are connected, one of which is taken affirmatively, and the other negatively, they belong to different propositions; and the verb or pronoun must agree with the *affirmative* subject, and be understood to the other: as, “Diligent *industry*, and not mean savings, *produces* honourable competence.” So also when subjects are connected by *as well as*, *but*, or *save*; as, “*Cæsar*, as well as Cicero, *was admired* for his eloquence.”—“*Nothing* but wailings *was heard*.”—“*None* but thou *can* aid us.”—“No mortal *man*, save he, *had e’er survived*.”—*Scott*.

Obs. 6.—When the subjects are severally preceded by the adjective *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately, and require a verb and pronoun in the singular number; as,

“And every sense, and every heart, *is* joy.”—*Thomson*.

“Each beast, each insect, happy in *its* own.”—*Pope*.

Obs. 7.—Two or more distinct subject *phrases* connected by *and*, require a plural verb; as, “*To be wise in our own eyes*, *to be wise in the opinion of the world*, and *to be wise in the sight of our Creator*, are three things so very different as rarely to coincide.”—*Blair*.

RULE XII.—VERBS.

When a Verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number: as, “Fear *or* jealousy *affects* him.”

Obs. 1.—When a verb has nominatives of *different persons* or *numbers*, connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with that which is placed next to it, and be understood to the rest in the person and number required; as, “Neither he nor his brothers *were* there.”—“Neither you nor I *am* concerned.”

Obs. 2.—But when the nominatives require *different forms* of the verb, it is, in general, more elegant to express the verb, or its auxiliary, in connection with each of them; as, “Either thou *art* to blame, or I *am*.”—“Neither *were* their numbers, nor *was* their destination known.”

Obs. 3.—The speaker should generally mention himself last; as, “Thou or I must go.”—“He then addressed his discourse to my father and me.” But in confessing a fault he may assume the first place; as, “I and Robert did it.”—*M. Edgeworth*.

Obs. 4.—Two or more distinct subject *phrases* connected by *or* or *nor*, require a singular verb; as, “*That a drunkard should be poor*, or *that a fop should be ignorant*, is not strange.”

RULE XIII.—VERBS.

When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed: as, “He *himself held* the plough, sowed the grain, and at

tended the reapers.”—“She *was* proud, but she is now humble.”

Obs. 1.—From this rule there are many *exceptions*. We *may*, without repeating the nominative, connect the present, the perfect, and the first-future tense of the indicative mood; the corresponding tenses of the indicative and potential moods; the affirmative and the negative form; or the simple and the compound form. But the simple verb must, in general, be placed first; as,

“What nothing earthly *gives* or *can destroy*.”—*Pope*.

“Some *are*, and *must be*, greater than the rest.”—*Id.*

“*Plays* round the head, but *comes not* to the heart.”—*Id.*

Obs. 2.—Those parts which are *common* to several verbs, are generally expressed to the first, and understood to the rest; as, “Every sincere endeavour to amend shall be assisted, [*shall be*] accepted, and [*shall be*] rewarded.”—“Honourably do the best you can” [*do*].—“He thought as I did” [*think*].—“You have seen it, but I have not” [*seen it*].—“If you will go, I will” [*go*].

RULE XIV.—PARTICIPLES.

Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or else are governed by prepositions: as, “Elizabeth’s tutor at one time *paying* her a visit, found her *employed* in reading Plato.”—*Hume*.

Obs. 1.—The word to which the participle relates, is sometimes *understood*; as, “*Granting* this to be true, what is to be inferred from it?” that is, “*I*, granting this to be true, *ask*, what is to be inferred from it?” Some grammarians have erroneously taught that such-participles are *put absolute*.

Obs. 2.—Participles have the same *government* as the verbs from which they are derived. The preposition *of*, therefore, should not be used after the participle, when the verb does not require it. Thus, in phrases like the following, *of* is improper: “Keeping *of* one day in seven;”—“By preaching *of* repentance;”—“They left beating *of* Paul.”

Obs. 3.—An imperfect or a compound participle, preceded by an article, an adjective, or a noun or pronoun of the possessive case, becomes a *verbal noun*, and, as such, it cannot govern an object after it. A word which may be the object of the participle in its proper construction requires the preposition *of*, to connect it with the verbal noun; as, 1. (By the participle,) “By exercising the body we promote health.” 2. (By the verbal noun,) “By *the* exercising of the body, health is promoted.

Obs. 4.—Participles that have become *nouns*, may be used as such with or without the article. But we sometimes find those which retain the government and the adjuncts of *participles*, used *as nouns* before or after verbs; as, “*Exciting* such disturbances, is *unlawful*.”—“*Rebellion* is *rising* against government.” This *monogrel construction* is liable to ambiguity, and ought to be avoided.

Obs. 5.—According to the analogy of *Greek* and *Latin*, there are several intransitive verbs after which the participle in *ing*, relating to the nominative, may be used in stead of the infinitive connected to the verb; as, “Continue *following* the Lord your God.”—1 *Sam.*, xii, 14. *Greek*, *poruomenoi*—*Latin*, *sequentes*. Not understanding the nature of this construction, or not observing what verbs admit of it, some persons use the participle erroneously as the object of the transitive verb; and *Murray* has very unskillfully laid it down as a rule, that “The participle with its adjuncts, may be considered as a substantive phrase in the objective case, governed by the preposition or verb;” whereas, he himself on the preceding page, had cautioned the learner against treating words in *ing*, “as if they were of an amphibious species, partly nouns and partly verbs;”—that is, “partly nouns and partly participles;” for, according to *Murray*, participles are verbs.

RULE XV.—ADVERBS.

Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs: as, “Any passion that *habitually* discomposes our temper, or unfits us for *properly* discharging the duties of life, has *most certainly* gained a *very* dangerous ascendancy.”

Obs. 1.—The adverb *yes*, expressing a simple affirmation, and the adverb *no*, expressing a simple negation, are always *independent*. They generally answer a question; and are equivalent to a repetition of it, in the form of an affirmative or a negative proposition.

Obs. 2.—*No* is sometimes an adverb of *degree*, and, as such, it can relate only to comparatives; as, “*No* greater”—“*No* sooner.” *No*, when prefixed to a noun, is an *adjective*; as,

“*No* clouds, *no* vapours intervene.”—*Dyer*.

Obs. 3.—A negation in English admits but *one* negative word; as, “I could not wait any longer,”—not, “*no* longer.” Double negatives are vulgar.

Obs. 4.—The *repetition* of a negative word or clause, *strengthens* the negation; as, “No, no, no.” But two negatives in the same clause, destroy the negation and render the meaning affirmative; as, “*Nor* did they *not* perceive their evil plight.”—*Milton*. That is, they *did* perceive it.

Obs. 5.—By the customary (but faulty) omission of the negative before *but*, that conjunction has acquired the adverbial sense of *only*; and it may, when used with that signification be called an *adverb*. Thus the text, “He hath not grieved me but in part,” [3 *Cor.*, ii, 5,] might drop the negative and still convey the same meaning: “He hath grieved me *but* in part.”

Obs. 6.—We sometimes find adverbs used after the manner of *nouns*; as, “The Son of Man hath not *where* to lay his head.”—*Matt.*, viii, 20. “The Son of God—was not *yea* and *noy*, but in him was *yea*.”—2 *Cor.*, i, 19. “An eternal *now* does always last.”—*Cowley*.

RULE XVI.—CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions connect either words or sentences; as, "Let there be no strife, I pray thee, between me *and* thee, *and* between my herdmen *and* thy herdmen; *for* we are brethren."—*Bible*.

Obs. 1.—Conjunctions that connect particular *words*, generally join similar parts of speech, in a common dependence on some other term. Those which connect *sentences* or clauses, commonly unite one to an other, either as an additional affirmation, or as a condition, a cause, or an end.

Obs. 2.—The conjunction *as*, often unites words that are in *aposition*; as, "He offered *himself* as a journeyman."

Obs. 3.—*As* frequently has the force of a relative *pronoun*; as, "Avoid such *as* are vicious."—"But to as many *as* received him, etc."—"He then read the conditions *as* follow."

Obs. 4.—The conjunction *that*, is frequently *understood*; as, "We hoped [*that*] you would come."

Obs. 5.—The conjunction *that*, when it introduces a sentence as the subject of a verb, does not connect it to any other term; as, "*That* mind is not matter, is certain."

Obs. 6.—After *than* or *as* expressing a comparison, there is usually an *ellipsis* of some word or words. The construction of the words employed, may be known by supplying the ellipsis; as, "She is younger than I" [*am*].—"He does nothing, who endeavours to do more than [*what*] is allowed to humanity."—*Johnson*.

Obs. 7.—When two corresponding conjunctions occur, in their usual order, the former should be parsed as referring to the latter, which is more properly the connecting word; as, "*Neither* sun *nor* stars in many days appeared."—*Acts*, xxvii, 20.

Obs. 8.—*Either*, corresponding to *or*, and *neither*, corresponding to *nor* or *not*, are sometimes transposed, so as to repeat the disjunction or negation at the end of the sentence; as, "Where then was their capacity of standing, *or* his *either*."—*Barclay*.—"He is very tall, but *not* too tall *neither*."—*Spectator*.

RULE XVII.—PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions show the relations of things: as, "The house was founded *on* a rock."

Obs. 1.—In parsing any ordinary preposition, the learner should name the *two terms of the relation*, and apply the foregoing rule. The former term of relation is sometimes *understood*; as, [*I say*] "In a word, it would entirely defeat my purpose."—"For all shall know me, [*reckoning*] from the least to the greatest."—*Hebrews*, viii, 11.

Obs. 2.—When a preposition introduces the infinitive, a phrase, or a sentence, which is made the entire subject or predicate of a proposition, it has *no antecedent term* of relation; as, "To be good,

is, *to be happy*.”—“*To be reduced to poverty, is a great affliction*.”—“*For an old man to be reduced to poverty, is a very great affliction*.” Dr. Adam remarks, that “*To* is often taken absolutely; as, ‘*To confess the truth*,’—‘*To proceed*.’” But his examples are not appropriate; for what he and many other grammarians call the *infinitive absolute*, evidently depends on something understood.

Obs. 3.—In the familiar style, a preposition governing a relative or an interrogative pronoun, is often separated from its object, and connected with the other term of relation; as, “*Whom did he speak to?*” But it is more dignified, and, in general, more graceful, to place the preposition before the pronoun; as, “*To whom did he speak?*”

Obs. 4.—Two prepositions sometimes come together, so that they ought not to be separated in parsing; as, “*Lambeth is over against Westminster-abbey*.”—*L. Murray*.

“*And from before the lustre of her face*.”—*Thomson*.

Obs. 5.—Two separate prepositions have sometimes a joint reference to the same noun; as, “*He boasted of, and contended for, the privilege*.” This construction is formal, and scarcely allowable, except in the law style. It is better to say, “*He boasted of the privilege, and contended for it*.”

RULE XVIII.—INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections have no dependent construction; as, “*O! let not thy heart despise me*.”—*Johnson*.

Obs.—“Interjections in English have no government.”—*Louth*. When a word, not in the nominative absolute, is connected with an interjection, or used in exclamation, its construction generally depends upon something understood; as, “*Ah me!*”—that is “*Ah! pity me!*”—“*Wo is me!*”—that is, “*Wo is to me!*”

CHAPTER II.—OF GOVERNMENT.*

RULE XIX.—POSSESSIVES.

A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed: as, “*Theirs is the vanity, the learning thine; Touch'd by thy hand, again Rome's glories shine*.”

Obs. 1.—The governing noun is sometimes understood; as, “*At the Alderman's*” [*house*].—“*A book of my brother's*” [*books*].

Obs. 2.—When nouns of the possessive case, are connected by conjunctions, or put in apposition, the sign of possession must al-

* The arrangement of words is treated of in the observations under the Rules, but more fully in the author's larger works.

ways be annexed to such, and such only, as immediately precede the governing noun, expressed or understood; as, "John and Eliza's teacher is a man of more learning than James's, or Andrew's."—"For David my servant's sake."

Obs. 3.—The apostrophe and *s* are sometimes annexed to that part of a *compound name*, which is, of itself, in the objective case; as, "The captain-of-the-guard's house."—*Bible*. "The Bard-of-Lomond's lay is done."—*Hogg*.

Obs. 4.—To avoid a concurrence of hissing sounds, the *s* is sometimes *omitted*, and the apostrophe only retained; as, "For conscience' sake."—"Moses' minister."—"Felix' room."—"Achilles' wrath." But in prose this ellision should be sparingly indulged.

Obs. 5.—The relation of property may also be expressed by the preposition *of*; as, "The will of man,"—for "man's will." Of these forms, we should adopt that which will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable; and, by the use of both, avoid an unpleasant repetition of either.

RULE XX.—OBJECTIVES.

Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and preperfect participles, govern the objective case: as, "I found *her* assisting *him*." "Having finished the *work*, I submit *it*."

Obs. 1.—The objective case generally *follows* the governing word: but when it is emphatic, it sometimes precedes it; as, "This *point* they have gained." A relative or an interrogative *pronoun* is commonly placed at the head of its clause; as, "*Whom* will the meeting appoint?"

Obs. 2.—Active-transitive verbs are sometimes followed by two objectives in *apposition*; as, "Thy saints proclaim *thee king*."—*Cowper*.—"And God called the *firmament Heaven*."—*Bible*.

Obs. 3.—When a verb is followed by two words in the objective case, which are not in apposition, nor connected by a conjunction, one of them is governed by a *preposition understood*; as, "I paid [to] *him* the money."—"They offered [to] *me* a seat."—"He asked [of] *them* the question."

Obs. 4.—In expressing such sentences *passively*, the object of the preposition is sometimes erroneously assumed for the nominative: as, "*He* was paid *the money*," instead of, "*The money* was paid [to] *him*."

Obs. 5.—Some verbs will govern a *kindred* noun, or its pronoun, but no other: as, "He lived a *virtuous life*."—"Hear, I pray you, this *dream which* I have dreamed."—*Gen.*, xxxvii, 6.

RULE XXI.—SAME CASES.

Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case *after* as *before* them, when both words refer to the same

thing: as, "*He return'd a friend, who came a foe.*"
—"The *child* was named *John.*"—"It could not be *he.*"

Obs. 1.—This is, perhaps, more properly a rule of *agreement*; the words connected by the verb, agree as if they were in *apposition*.
—[See Rule 3d.]

Obs. 2.—In the foregoing rule, the words *after* and *before* refer rather to the order of the sense and construction, than to the placing of the words. The proper *subject* of the verb is the nominative to it, or *before* it, by Rule 2d; and the other nominative, however placed, belongs after the verb, by Rule 21st.

Obs. 3.—In interrogative sentences, the terms are usually *transposed*, or both are placed *after* the verb; as,

"Whence, and *what* art *thou*, execrable shape?"—*Milton*.

"Art *thou* that traitor *angel*? art *thou he*?"—*Idem*.

Obs. 4.—In some peculiar constructions, both words naturally come *before* the verb; as, "I know not *who she is.*" And they are sometimes placed in this manner by transposition; as, "Yet *He it is.*"

RULE XXII.—OBJECTIVES.

Prepositions govern the objective case: as,

"Truth and good are one:

And beauty dwells *in them*, and they *in her*,
With like participation."—*Akenside*.

Obs. 1.—Most of the prepositions may take the *imperfect participle* for their object; and some, the *preperfect*: as, "*On opening* the trial, they accused him *of having defrauded* them."

Obs. 2.—Prepositions are sometimes elliptically construed with *adjectives*; as, *in vain*, *in secret*, *at first*, *on high*;—i. e., *in a vain manner*, *in secret places*, *at the first time*, *on high places*. In parsing, supply the ellipsis. [See Obs. 4th, under Rule 4th.]

Obs. 3.—In a few instances, prepositions precede *adverbs*; as, *at once*, *from above*, *for ever*. These should be united if the terms are to be parsed together as *adverbs*; but we may suppose the latter words to be used *substantively*, by Obs. 6th, on Rule 15th.

Obs. 4.—When nouns of *time* or *measure* are connected with verbs or adjectives, the prepositions which govern them, are generally *suppressed*; as, "We rode sixty miles that day;" that is, "*through* sixty miles *on* that day."—"The wall is ten feet high;" that is, "high to ten feet." In parsing, supply the ellipsis. Such expressions as, "A board of six feet long,"—"A boy of twelve years old,"—are wrong. Strike out *of*; or say, "A board of six feet *in length*,"—"A boy of twelve years *of age*."

Obs. 5.—After the adjectives *like*, *near*, and *nigh*, the preposition *to* or *unto* is generally understood; as, "It is *like* [to or unto] *silver*."—"Near [to] yonder copse."—"Nigh [to] this recess"

Obs. 6.—The word *worth*, which most grammarians call an adjective, is followed either by the objective case or by a participle, supposed to be governed by *of* understood; as, “The book is *worth* a dollar.”—“It is *worth* mentioning.” But, after a careful examination of the term, we know no reason why *worth* should be called an adjective, rather than a *preposition* governing the word which follows it.

Obs. 7.—After verbs of *giving*, *procuring*, and some others, there is usually an ellipsis of *to* or *for* before the objective of the person; as, “Give [*to*] him water to drink.”—“Buy [*for*] me a knife.”

RULE XXIII.—INFINITIVES.

The preposition *to* governs the infinitive mood, and commonly connects it to a finite verb: as, “I desire *to learn*.”—*Dr. Adam*.

Obs. 1.—Most grammarians have considered the sign *to* as a *part of the infinitive*; and have referred the government of this mood to a preceding verb. But the rule which they give is partial and often inapplicable; and their exceptions to it are numerous and puzzling. Though the infinitive is commonly made an adjunct to some finite verb, yet it may be joined to almost all the other parts of speech.—[See *Institutes of E. Gram.*, p. 186.]

Obs. 2.—The infinitive sometimes depends on a verb understood; as, “*To be* candid with you, [*I confess*] I was in fault.”

RULE XXIV.—INFINITIVES.

The active verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and their participles, usually take the infinitive after them, without the preposition *to*; as, “If he bade thee *depart*, how darest thou *stay*?”

Obs. 1.—The preposition is always employed after the *passive* form of these verbs, and in some instances after the *active*; as, “He was heard *to say*.”—“I cannot see *to do it*.”—“What would dare to molest him who might call on every side, to thousands enriched by his bounty?”—*Dr. Johnson*.

Obs. 2.—The auxiliary *be* of the passive infinitive is also suppressed after *feel*, *hear*, *make*, and *see*; as, “I heard the letter *read*,” not, “*be read*.”

RULE XXV.—NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE.

A noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word: as, “*He failing*, who shall meet success?”—“Your *fathers*, where are they? and the *prophets*, do they live forever?”—*Zech.*, i, 5.

"*This said, he form'd thee, Adam! thee, O man! Dust of the ground.*"—*Milton.*

Obs. 1.—A noun or pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, under the following *four* circumstances:—

1. When, *with a participle*, it is used to express a cause, or a concomitant fact; as,

"Thou looking on,
Shame to be overcome or overreach'd,
Would utmost vigor raise."—*Milton.*

2. When, *by a direct address*, it is put in the second person, and set off from the verb; as, "At length, *Saged*, reflect and be wise."

3. When, *by pleonasm*, it is abruptly introduced, for the sake of emphasis; as, "*He* that is in the city, famine and pestilence shall devour him."—"Gad, a troop shall overcome him."—"The north and the south, thou hast created them."—*Bible.*

4. When, *by mere exclamation*, it is used without address, and without other words expressed or implied to give it construction; as,

"Oh! deep enchanting *prelude* to repose,
The dawn of bliss, the *twilight* of our woes!"—*Campbell.*

Obs. 2.—The nominative put absolute *with a participle*, is equivalent to a dependent clause commencing with *when, while, if, since, or because*; as, "I being a child,"—equal to, "When I was a child."

Obs. 3.—The participle *being* is often understood after nouns or pronouns put absolute; as,

"Alike in ignorance, his reason [—] such,
Whether he thinks too little or too much."—*Pope.*

Obs. 4.—All nouns preceded by an article, are *in the third person*; and, in exclamatory phrases, such nouns sometimes appear to have no determinable construction: as, "O the *depth* of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God!"—*Rom.*, xi, 32.

Obs. 5.—The case of nouns used in exclamations, or in mottoes and abbreviated sayings, often depends, or may be conceived to depend, on something *understood*; and when their construction can be satisfactorily explained on the principles of ellipsis, they are not put absolute. The following examples may perhaps be resolved in this manner, though the expressions will lose much of their vivacity: "A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!"—*Shak.* "Heaps upon heaps,"—"Skin for skin,"—"An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth,"—"Day after day,"—"World without end."—*Bible.*

RULE XXVI.—SUBJUNCTIVES.

A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the Subjunctive present; and a mere supposition, with indefinite time, by a verb in the

Subjunctive imperfect; but a conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the Indicative Mood: as "If thou *forsake* him, he will cast thee off forever."—"If it *were* not so, I would have told you."—"If thou *went*, nothing would be gained."—"Though he *is* poor, he is contented."

CHAPTER III.—EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

Designed to exercise the pupil in applying practically the Rules of Syntax liable to be violated. To be corrected orally.

LESSON I.—UNDER RULE II.—NOMINATIVES.

1. Thee must have been idle.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *thee* is in the objective case, and is the subject of the verb *must have been*. But, according to Rule 2d, "A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case." Therefore, *thee* should be *thou*; thus, *Thou* must have been idle.]

2. Him that loiters by the way, may be belated.
3. Them that labour, should be rewarded.
4. Us who are spared, ought to be thankful.
5. You and me are equally concerned.
6. Are not thee and him related?
7. My brother is older than me.
8. He cannot read so well as thee.
9. Who fastened the door? Me.
10. Whom do you suppose did it?

LESSON II.—UNDER RULE III.—APPPOSITION.

1. I have heard from my cousin, she that was here last week.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *she* is in the nominative case, and is used to explain the noun *cousin* which is in the objective case. But, according to Rule 3d, "A noun or a personal pronoun, used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case." Therefore, *she* should be *her*; thus, I have heard from my cousin, *her* that was here last week.]

2. That was the tailorress, her that made my clothes.
3. I saw your friend, he that was here last winter.
4. Dennis, the gardener, him that gave me the tulips, has promised me a piony.

LESSON III.—UNDER RULE V.—PRONOUNS.

1. Ought not every man to be careful of their reputation?

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *their* is of the plural number, and does not correctly represent its antecedent noun *man*, which is of the third person, singular, masculine. But, according to Rule 5th, “A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender.” Therefore, *their* should be *his*; thus, Ought not every man to be careful of *his* reputation?]

2. Every one must judge of their own feelings.—*Byron*.
3. We may be displeased with a person without hating *them*.
4. I poured water on the embers to quench it.
5. Ask her for the scissors, and bring it to me.
6. He had sown the oats, and it had already sprung up.

LESSON IV.—UNDER RULE VI.—PRONOUNS.

1. The jury will be confined until it agrees on a verdict.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *it* is of the singular number, and does not correctly represent its antecedent *jury*, which is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality. But, according to Rule 6th, “When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun must agree with it, in the plural number.” Therefore, *it* should be *they*; thus, The jury will be confined until *they* agree on a verdict.]

2. The people will not relinquish its rights.
3. The clergy had declared its intention.
4. The party disagreed among itself.
5. The committee were unanimous, and this is its award.
6. The company then renewed its claims

LESSON V.—UNDER RULE VII.—PRONOUNS.

1. Discontent and sorrow manifested itself in his countenance.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *itself* is of the singular number, and does not correctly represent its two antecedents, *discontent* and *sorrow*, which are connected by *and*, and taken conjointly. But, according to Rule 7th, “When a pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number.” Therefore, *itself* should be *themselves*; thus, Discontent and sorrow manifested *themselves* in his countenance.]

2. Avoid lightness and frivolity: it is allied to folly.
3. Truth and honesty cannot fail of its reward.
4. Learning and good sense always adorn its possessor.
5. Banish envy and strife, lest it utterly destroy your peace.
6. Cherish love and unity: it is the life of society.

LESSON VI.—UNDER RULE VIII.—PRONOUNS.

1. Neither wealth nor honour can satisfy their votaries.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *their* is of the plural number, and does not correctly represent its two antecedents

wealth and *honour*, which are connected by *nor*, and taken disjunctively. But, according to Rule 8th, "When a pronoun has two or more singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number." Therefore, *their* should be *its*; thus, Neither wealth nor honour can satisfy *its* votaries.]

2. Can justice or truth change their nature?
3. One or the other must relinquish their claim.
4. Neither the lion nor the tiger will bow their neck to the yoke.
5. The horse or the ox will lend thee their strength.
6. Neither my father nor my master would give their consent.

LESSON VII.—UNDER RULE IX.—VERBS.

1. You was kindly received.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *was received* is of the singular number, and does not agree with its nominative *you*, which is plural. But, according to Rule 9th, "A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number." Therefore, *was received* should be *were received*; thus, You *were* kindly received.]

2. Appearances is often deceptive.
3. The propriety of such restrictions are doubtful.
4. There is windows on three sides of the room.
5. Thou sees the difficulties with which I am surrounded.
6. What does all my exertions avail?

LESSON VIII.—UNDER RULE X.—VERBS.

1. The people rejoices in that which should cause sorrow.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *rejoices* is of the singular number, and does not correctly agree with the nominative *people*, which is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality. But, according to Rule 10th, "When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb must agree with it in the plural number." Therefore, *rejoices* should be *rejoice*; thus, The people *rejoice* in that which should cause sorrow.]

2. The nobility was assured that he would not interpose.
3. The committee has attended to their appointment.
4. The majority was disposed to adopt the measure.
5. All the world is spectators of your conduct.
6. Blessed is the people that know the joyful sound.—*Bible*.

LESSON IX.—UNDER RULE XI.—VERBS.

1. Industry and frugality leads to wealth.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *leads* is of the singular number, and does not correctly agree with its two nominatives, *industry* and *frugality*, which are connected by *and*, and taken conjointly. But, according to Rule 11th, "When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number." Therefore, *leads* should be *lead*; thus, *Industry and frugality lead to wealth.*"]

2. Temperance and exercise preserves health.
3. My love and affection towards thee remains unaltered.
4. Wealth, honour, and happiness, forsakes the indolent.
5. My flesh and my heart faileth.—*Bible*.
6. In all his works, there is sprightliness and vigour.

LESSON X.—UNDER RULE XII.—VERBS.

1. Ignorance or negligence have caused this mistake.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *have caused* is of the plural number, and does not correctly agree with its two nominatives, *ignorance* and *negligence*, which are connected by *or*, and taken disjunctively. But, according to Rule 12th, "When a verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number." Therefore, *have caused* should be *has caused*; thus, Ignorance or negligence *has caused* this mistake.]

2. No axe or hammer have ever awakened an echo here.
3. What the heart or the imagination dictate, flows readily.
4. Neither authority nor analogy support such ~~an~~ opinion.
5. Either ability or inclination were wanting.
6. He comes—nor want nor cold his course delay.—*Johnson*.

LESSON XI.—UNDER RULE XIII.—VERBS.

1. They would neither go in, nor suffered others to enter.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *suffered*, which is in the indicative mood, is connected, without repetition of the nominative, to *would go*, which is in the potential mood. But, according to Rule 13th; "When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed." Therefore, *suffered* should be *would suffer*; (*would* understood;) thus, They would neither go in, nor *suffer* others to enter.]

2. Does not he waste his time, and neglects his lessons?
3. Did not she send, and gave you this information?
4. Their honours are departing, and come to an end.
5. He had retired to his farm, and appeared to be happy there.
6. He was elected to the office, but would not serve.

LESSON XII.—UNDER RULE XX.—OBJECTIVES.

1. She I shall more readily forgive.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *she* is in the nominative case, and is the object of the active-transitive verb *shall forgive*. But, according to Rule 20th, "Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and preperfect participles, govern the objective case." Therefore, *she* should be *her*; thus, *Her* I shall more readily forgive.]

2. Thou only have I chosen.

3. Who shall we send on this errand?
4. My father allowed my brother and I to accompany him.
5. He that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.
6. Who should I meet but my old friend!

LESSON XIII.—UNDER RULE XXI.—SAME CASES.

1. We did not know that it was him.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *him*, which follows the neuter verb *was*, is in the objective case, and does not agree with the pronoun *it*, which precedes the verb, in the nominative; both words referring to the same thing. But, according to Rule 21st, "Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case after as before them, when both words refer to the same thing." Therefore, *him* should be *he*; thus, We did not know that it was *he*.]

2. We thought it was thee.
3. I would act the same part, if I were him.
4. It could not have been her.
5. It is not me that he is angry with.
6. They believed, it to be I.

LESSON XIV.—UNDER RULE XXII.—OBJECTIVES.

1. It rests with thou and me to decide.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *thou* is in the nominative case, and is governed by the preposition *with*. But, according to Rule 22d, "Prepositions govern the objective case." Therefore, *thou* should be *thee*; thus, It rests with *thee* and me to decide.]

2. Let that remain a secret between you and I.
3. I lent the book to some one, I know not who.
4. Let no quarrel occur among we three fellows.
5. Who did he inquire for? Thou.
6. From he that is needy, turn not away.

LESSON XV.—UNDER RULE XXIII.—INFINITIVES.

1. Ought these things be tolerated?

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the infinitive *be tolerated*, is not preceded by the preposition *to*. But, according to Rule 23d, "The preposition *to* governs the infinitive mood, and commonly connects it to a finite verb." *To* should be inserted; thus, Ought these things *to* be tolerated?]

2. Please excuse my son's absence.
3. Cause every man go out from me.
4. Forbid them enter the garden.
5. Do you not perceive it move?
6. Allow others discover your merit.
7. He was seen go in at that gate.

LESSON XVI.—UNDER RULE XXIV.—INFINITIVES.

1. They need not to call upon her.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the preposition *to* is inserted before *call*, which follows the active verb *need*. But, according to Rule 24th, "The active verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and their participles, usually take the infinitive after them, without the preposition *to*." Therefore, *to* should be omitted; thus, "They need not call upon her.]

2. I felt a chilling sensation to creep over me.
3. I have heard him to mention the subject.
4. Bid the boys to come in immediately.
5. I dare to say he has not got home yet.
6. Let no rash promise to be made.

LESSON XVII.—UNDER RULE XXV.—NOM. ABSOLUTE.

1. Him having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *him*, whose case depends on no other word, is in the objective case. But, according to Rule 25th, "A noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word." Therefore, *him* should be *he*; thus, *He* having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.]

2. Me being young, they deceived me.
3. Them refusing to comply, I withdrew.
4. The child is lost; and me, whither shall I go?
5. Thee being present, he would not tell what he knew.
6. Arise, and gird thyself, O thee that sleepest!
7. O wretched us! shut from the light of hope!
8. "Thee too! Brutus, my son!" cried Cæsar overcome.
9. But him, the chieftain of them all,
His sword hangs rusting on the wall.

LESSON XVIII.—UNDER RULE XXVI.—SUBJUNCTIVES.

1. He will not be pardoned, unless he repents.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *repents*, which is used to express a future contingency, is in the indicative mood. But, according to Rule 26th, "A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the subjunctive, present." Therefore, *repents* should be *repent*; thus, He will not be pardoned unless he *repent*.]

2. I shall walk out in the afternoon, unless it rains.
3. If thou feltest as I do, we should soon decide.
4. I knew thou wert not slow to hear.
5. Let him take heed lest he falls.
6. If thou castest me off, I shall be miserable.
7. I believed, whatever was the issue, all would be well.
8. If he was an impostor, he must have been detected.

CHAPTER IV.—ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

Two or more subjects connected by a conjunction, may belong to the same predicate; or two or more connected predicates may have the same subject. In this case, the *sentence* should be considered *simple*, with a *compound subject* or *predicate*.

Phrases are either *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*.

A phrase, containing a phrase as an adjunct of its principal part, is called a *complex phrase*; as, "By the bounty of *Heaven*."

A phrase, composed of two or more coördinate phrases, is called a *compound phrase*; as, "*Stoop down and looking in*."

EXERCISE I.

Analyze the following sentences, pointing out the compound subjects and predicates, and distinguishing the different kinds of phrases.

EXAMPLE.—"The Gauls, a barbarous people, in the fourth century before Christ, invaded Italy and burned Rome."

This is a simple declarative sentence, having a compound predicate. The subject is *Gauls*; the compound predicate is *invaded and burned*; the objects are *Italy and Rome*.

The adjuncts of the subject are *the* and *people*, *a* and *barbarous* being adjuncts of *people*; the adjunct, of the predicate, is the complex adverbial phrase, *in the fourth century before Christ*; the principal part of the phrase is *century*, the adjuncts of which are *the*, *fourth*, and the simple adjective phrase, *before Christ*; neither of the objects has any adjuncts.

Temperance and exercise preserve the health both of the body and the mind. The wild animals turned, looked, and ran away. The faculty of reasoning accurately, is possessed by very few. The sun was pouring its meridian rays upon the Arabian desert, when a caravan halted for refreshment and repose. Obidah, the son of Abensina, left the caravansary early in the morning, and pursued his journey through the plains of Hindoostan. I went, by the field of the slothful, and by the vineyard of the man void of understanding. The Puritans rejected with contempt the ceremonious homage of other sects. Afflicted by this spectacle of suffering, he proffered immediate relief. By what authority doest thou these things? In the autumn of 1783, the war of the Revolution had closed with glory to the several States. The creation is a grand museum filled with wonders, and beauties, and glories. Fine writing is generally

the effect of spontaneous thoughts and a labored style. A large, branching, aged oak is, perhaps, the most venerable of all inanimate objects. We should forgive freely, but forget rarely. Get justly, use soberly, distribute cheerfully, and live contentedly.

PARSING.

After analyzing each of the above sentences, let the pupil be required to distinguish the different parts of speech, and their classes; to mention their modifications in order; to point out their relation, agreement, or government; and to apply the Rules of Syntax. Thus:—

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"Man's highest interest consists in virtue."

Man's is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and possessive case; and is governed by *interest*; according to the Rule 19th, which says, "A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed."

Highest is a common adjective, of the superlative degree; compared *high*, *higher*, *highest*; and relates to *interest*; according to Rule 4th, which says, "Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns."

Interest is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case; and is the subject of *consists*; according to Rule 2d, which says, "A noun or pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case."

Consists is a regular neuter verb, from *consist*, *consisted*, *consisting*, *consisted*; found in the indicative mood, present tense, third person, and singular number; and agrees with its nominative *interest*; according to Rule 9th, which says, "A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number."

In is a preposition; and shows the relation between *virtue* and *consists*; according to Rule 17th, which says, "Prepositions show the relation of things." Because the phrase *in virtue* modifies *consists*.

Virtue is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case; and is governed by *in*; according to Rule 22d, which says, "Prepositions govern the objective case."

EXERCISE II.—THE SUBJECT PHRASE.

In this, and each of the following exercises, let the pupil be required to analyze according to the example, and parse as in the preceding exercise.

EXAMPLE.—"To be at once a rake and glory in the character, discovers a bad disposition and a bad heart."

This is a simple declarative sentence, having a compound subject. The subject is composed of the two coordinate phrases, *To be at once a rake* and *to glory in the character*, connected by *and*; the principal part of the first phrase is *to be*; and its adjuncts are the adverbial phrase *at once* and the indefinite attribute *rake*, (see Obs. 4, page 66,) modified by *a*; the principal part of the second phrase is, *to glory*; and its adjunct is the simple adverbial phrase, *in the character*, the principal part being modified by *the*. The predicate of the sentence is *discovers*; the objects, *disposition* and *heart*, each modified by the adjuncts *a* and *bad*.

To do good to all men, is the duty of a Christian. [†] Riding on horseback is a beneficial exercise. To live soberly, righteously, and piously, comprehends the whole of our duty. To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character. To have remained calm, under such provocations, was a proof of remarkable

self-control. To be continually subject to the breath of slander, will tarnish the purest reputation. To perceive nothing or not to perceive, is the same. To profess regard and act injuriously, discovers a base mind. To know one's own ignorance, is generally conducive to improvement. To be happy without the approval of conscience, is impossible. To err is human; to forgive, divine.

EXERCISE III.—THE OBJECT PHRASE.

EXAMPLE.—“Pope professed to have learned his poetry from Dryden.”

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *Pope*; the predicate is *professed*; the object is the complex phrase, *to have learned his poetry from Dryden*. The principal part of the phrase is, *to have learned*; its adjuncts, the object *poetry* and the simple adverbial phrase *from Dryden*; *poetry* is modified by the adjunct *his*. Neither the subject nor the predicate of the sentence, has any adjuncts.

1 We should always desire to obey the dictates of conscience. 2 He who desires, to be happy, should cultivate integrity and self-respect. 3 We swear to preserve the blessings for which our fathers toiled and bled. The teacher enjoined upon his pupils, to be industrious in study, to cultivate a virtuous disposition, and especially to love truth. Seek earnestly to improve your talents. Cease to do evil, learn to do well. I dare not proceed so hastily, lest I give offence. ~~Never attempt to conceal~~ a fault, but confess it freely. We should love to do what God commands. Artaxerxes being thus entreated, could not refuse to pardon him. By the faults of others, wise men learn to correct their own. He began again to teach by the seaside.

EXERCISE IV.—THE ATTRIBUTE PHRASE.

EXAMPLE.—“His object was not to surprise his readers.”

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *object*, modified by the adjunct *his*; the predicate is *was*, modified by the adverb *not*; the attribute is the phrase *to surprise his readers*; the principal part of the phrase is *to surprise*; its adjunct, the object *readers*, modified by *his*.

The object of punishment should be, to reform the wicked. To be good is to be happy. To surrender without making resistance, would be, to submit to a base and inglorious death. To attempt further to illustrate so plain a truth, would be only to spend time uselessly. To smile on those whom we should censure, is to bring guilt upon ourselves. The tendency of ~~evil~~ *his*, to make men miserable. The highest art of the mind of man, is, to possess itself with tranquillity in the hour of danger. He was known to be kept in close custody at Oxford. My power is to advise, not to compel. Is life to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? The ship is to sail to-morrow. His conduct was greatly to be admired. My friend is in very good health. The train might have been off ~~the track~~. The vessel was behind its usual time. To submit to ~~insult~~, is, to give occasion for it. The silver age is reckoned to have commenced at the death of Augustus.

EXERCISE V.—ADJECTIVE AND ADVERBIAL PHRASES.

EXAMPLE.—“Where there is no knowledge of the law, a man acting in opposition to it, cannot be properly said to transgress it.”

This is a complex declarative sentence. The principal clause is, *a man acting in opposition to it, cannot be properly said to transgress it*; the dependent clause is, *where there is no knowledge of the law*. The connective is *where*.

The subject of the principal clause is *man*; the predicate, *can be said*; the attribute, *to transgress it*. The adjuncts of the subject are *a*, and the complex adjective phrase, *acting in opposition to it*; the principal part of the phrase is *acting*, modified by the complex adverbial phrase, *in opposition to it*, the principal part of which is *opposition*, modified by the simple adjective phrase, *to it*. The adjuncts of the predicate are *not* and *properly*, and the dependent clause; the adjunct of the attribute is the object *it*.

The subject of the dependent clause is *knowledge*; the predicate is *is*. The adjuncts of the subject are *no* and the simple adjective phrase, *of the law*; the adjunct of the predicate is *there*.

Genius has often been discovered in persons of a very humble condition in life. In summer the fervid sun darting his direct rays, oppresses us with heat. A man of integrity will never listen to any reason against conscience. The ambition to excel was manifest in all his acts. An old man was busily employed in planting and ingrafting an apple-tree. We should always strive to do right. Eliza's benevolence in relieving the poor was much to be commended. Christians should exhibit an ability to endure the various vicissitudes of life. Newton's ideas regarding the nature of comets, were quite fanciful. Honors bestowed on the illustrious dead, have in them no admixture of envy. A habit of sincerity in acknowledging faults, is a guard against committing them.

EXERCISE VI.—THE EXPLANATORY PHRASE.

EXAMPLE.—“It is a Christian's vocation to do good to all.”

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *it*; the predicate is *is*; the attribute is *vocation*. The adjunct of the subject is the explanatory phrase, *to do good to all*; the principal part of the phrase is *to do*, its adjuncts are the object *good* and the simple adverbial phrase, *to all*. The adjunct of the attribute is *Christian's*, modified by *a*.

It is a great crime to deceive the innocent and confiding. It is good to sing praises unto our God. It is impossible to instruct those who have no desire to learn. It is of little use to form plans of life. It deserves our best skill, to inquire into those rules, by which we may guide our judgment. It is a sign of great prudence, to be willing to receive instruction. It is the duty of public speakers, in addressing any popular assembly, to be previously masters of their subject. It pleased Darius the King, to set over the kingdom a hundred and twenty princes, who should be over the whole kingdom.

EXERCISE VII.—THE INDEPENDENT PHRASE.

EXAMPLE 1.—“Night coming on, the battle was discontinued.”

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *battle*; the predicate is, *was discontinued*. The adjunct of the subject is *the*. *Night coming on*, is an independent phrase; its principal part is *night*, the adjunct of which is the participles *coming*, modified by *on*.

EXAMPLE 2.—"To speak candidly, I did not quite understand the subject."

A simple declarative sentence. The subject is *I*; the predicate is *did understand*; the object is *subject*. The adjuncts of the predicate are *not* and *quite*; that of the object is *the*. *To speak candidly* is an independent phrase; the principal part being *to speak*, modified by *candidly*.

To confess the truth, I was very much in fault. Generally speaking, the conduct of that man is unexceptionable. Theron and Aspasia took a morning walk into the fields; their spirits cheered, and their imaginations lively; gratitude glowing in their hearts, and the whole creation smiling around them. The Senate consented to the creation of tribunes of the people, Appius alone protesting against the measure. To be plain with you, your conduct is very much to be censured. Considering the circumstances, the degree of success which you have attained, is highly deserving of commendation. All obstacles having been overcome, he finally reached the goal of his ambition. My dear friend, how glad I am to see you! (Pause for a while, ye travellers of earth, to contemplate the universe around you!) Green be the turf above thee friend of my better days! Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.

EXERCISE VIII.—THE SUBJECT CLAUSE.

EXAMPLE.—"That vice conducts to misery, is certain."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject is the dependant clause, *Vice conducts to misery*; the predicate is *is*; the attribute is *certain*. The subject of the dependant clause is *vice*; the predicate is *conducts*, modified by the simple adverbial phrase, *to misery*. *That* is the connective of the two clauses.

That you have wronged me, doth appear in this. Whence proceeded this sad calamity, has not been ascertained. Why he committed so dreadful a crime, is a mystery. Who wrote the letters of Junius, is not positively known. That it is our duty to be kind to our fellow-creatures, does not admit of a doubt. That I know not what I want, is the cause of my complaint. How this difficulty is to be solved, is beyond conjecture. That idleness leads to ruin, and that industry insures success, are certain truths. That Julius Cæsar invaded Britain, is a well-known historical fact. That integrity is essential to success in life, ought to be continually inculcated on the young.

EXERCISE IX.—THE OBJECT CLAUSE.

EXAMPLE.—"Remember that indolence can lead to nothing but disgrace and misery."

This is a complex imperative sentence. The subject is *thou* (understood); the predicate is *remember*; the object is the dependant clause, *Indolence can lead, &c.* *That* is the connective. The subject of the dependant clause is *indolence*; the predicate is *can lead*, which is modified by the complex adverbial phrase, *to nothing but disgrace and misery*; the principal part of this phrase is *nothing*, modified by the phrase, *but disgrace and misery*. [*But*—a preposition.]

The orator felt that every eye was upon him. John says that his brother is not well. Always bear in mind that you owe very

much to your parents. The fool hath said in his heart, There is no God. See! Aspasio, how all is calculated to administer the highest delight to mankind. He said, that he was well apprised of the obedience which he owed to the laws. She had now to learn what it is to be a slave. Consider well whether you are able to perform this great undertaking. Remember, Almet, that the world in which thou art placed, is but the road to another. And Nathan said unto David, Thou art the man. Then said Joab to Cushi, Go tell the king what thou hast seen. The scribes spake unto him, saying, Tell us by what authority doest thou these things? The cynic observed that the philosopher who could dine on herbs, might despise the company of a king.

EXERCISE X.—THE OBJECT CLAUSE.—INFINITIVE FORM.

Obs.—In the infinitive form of this clause, the subject and predicate are connected *indirectly*. The predicate, instead of being a finite verb, is a verb in the infinitive mood, and its subject is in the objective case. Thus, in the sentence, "He commanded the army to march," *army* is the subject, and *to march*, the predicate; because it is indicated (although indirectly) that the act of marching is performed by the agent *army*, the sentence being equivalent to, "He commanded that the army should march."

EXAMPLE.—"Conversation makes a man grow wiser."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject is *Conversation*; the predicate is *makes*; the object is the infinitive clause, *a man (to) grow wiser*. The subject of the dependent clause is *man*, modified by *a*; the predicate is, *to grow*; the attribute, *wiser*.

I heard him relate the story of his wrongs. I heard a faint voice call my name. Let us then be up and doing. In this melancholy state, he commanded messengers to recall his eldest son, Abouzaid, from the army. Let the dead past bury its dead. We often see bad men intrusted with very important duties. The united testimony of many witnesses, proved him to be guilty of the crime with which he was charged. Forbid them to enter the garden. The Sovereigns requested Columbus to return, and be present at the Convention. It was the peculiar artifice of Habit, not to suffer her power to be felt at first.

EXERCISE XI.—THE ATTRIBUTE CLAUSE.

EXAMPLE.—"His reply was, that he was sure of success."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject is *reply*; the predicate is *was*; the attribute is the dependent clause, *He was sure of success*. The connective is *that*.

My hope is, that you will regain your liberty. His decision was, that the culprit should be punished. The physician's directions were, that the patient should travel to the South, that he should avoid excitement, and that he should be careful in diet. Kepler's opinion with regard to the tides was, that they are caused by the

attraction of the moon. The general sentiment is, that his conduct was entirely unjustifiable. The cause of so great an error might have been, that the subject had not been sufficiently studied. The cause of the defeat was, that the army had not been supplied with the means of transportation.

EXERCISE XII.—ADJECTIVE AND ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

EXAMPLE.—“And when the king came in to see the guests, he saw there a man that had not on a wedding garment.”

Complex declarative sentence.

Subject, *he*; predicate, *saw*; object, *man*. Adjuncts of predicate, *there*, and the adverbial clause, *when the king came in to see the guests*; adjuncts of object, *a* and the adjective clause, *that had not on a wedding garment*. (Let the pupil analyze each dependent clause as in the preceding exercises.)

When they arrived at the orchard, they commenced to gather the fruit which they found scattered on the ground. While you are striving to acquire knowledge, endeavor also to become virtuous and good. Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also. He who talks loudly of qualities that he does not possess, is a boaster. The globe on which we live, is called the earth. What we are afraid to do before men, we should be much more afraid to think before God. The place in which this event occurred, is not mentioned by the geographers who wrote at that time. The scholar who is attentive and persevering, is sure to excel. We naturally look with strong emotion to the spot, where the ashes of those we have loved, repose. He that lies abed all a summer's morning, loses the chief pleasures of the day; he that gives up his youth to indolence, undergoes a loss of a like kind. What would dare to molest him who might call, on every side, to thousands enriched by his bounty? He who knows not what it is to labor, knows not what it is to enjoy. The promise that he should be rewarded, was kept. The merchant received intelligence that his ship had been wrecked.

EXERCISE XIII.—THE EXPLANATORY CLAUSE.

EXAMPLE.—“It is an old saying that, ‘Truth lies in a well.’”

Complex declarative sentence.

Subject, *it*; predicate, *is*; attribute, *saying*.

Adjunct of the subject the explanatory clause, *truth lies in a well*; adjuncts of attribute, *an* and *old*. *That*, a conjunction connecting the principal and the dependent clause.

It is said by some, that Columbus had a haughtiness of manner. It has been conclusively proved, that the earth is not the centre of the universe. It has always been the earnest wish of parents, that their children should be well educated. It makes a great difference to us, whether death is a perpetual sleep, or the beginning of another and better life. And it was told Joab, Behold, the king weepeth and mourneth for Absalom. The question whether purity or mixture of race is most conducive to national greatness, appears *not to be fully settled*. It is a source of astonishment to all his

friends, that he should have been guilty of so disgraceful an act. It was observed, that he derived no joy from the benefits which he diffused. It was in the spring of the year, that Xerxes commenced his march to the Hellespont. It was with the utmost difficulty, that the American union was formed.

EXERCISE XIV.—THE PARENTHETICAL CLAUSE.

EXAMPLE.—“‘Life,’ says Seneca, ‘is a voyage, in the progress of which, we are perpetually changing our scenes.’”

A compound declarative sentence.

Subject, *life*; predicate, *is*; attribute, *voyage*.

Adjunct of *voyage* is the simple adjective clause, *in the progress of which we are perpetually changing our scenes*. The subject is *we*; predicate, *are changing*; object, *scenes*. Adjuncts of predicate, *perpetually*, and, *in the progress of which*—a complex adverbial phrase; principal part, *progress*; adjunct, *of which*. *Says Seneca*, is a simple parenthetical clause. Subject, *Seneca*; predicate, *says*.

Obs.—Sentences of this form may be analyzed by considering the parenthetical clause, the principal one, and the rest of the sentence a dependent clause. The mode indicated above is, however, preferable; as, although the parenthetical clause is united in construction with the other part of the sentence, it is not necessary to complete the sense.

Study, I beseech you, to store your minds with useful knowledge. “Thirst for glory,” says a great writer, “is often founded on ambition and vanity.” “Son of affliction,” said Omar, “who art thou and what is thy distress?” “Almet,” said he, “remember what thou hast seen, and let this memorial be written upon the tablet of thy heart.” How dangerous soever idleness may be, are there not pleasures, it may be said, which attend it? A man who cannot read, let us always remember, is a being not contemplated by the genius of the American constitution.

EXERCISE XV.—COMPOUND SENTENCES.

Obs. 1.—In analyzing compound sentences, the *leading clause* should be distinguished from the *subordinate clause*. It must also be understood that the dependence of the latter upon the former, is *logical*, not *grammatical*, differing in this respect altogether from the relation of the *principal* and the *dependent* clause of a complex sentence, which is grammatical, the latter being an *adjunct*, or used as one of the *principal parts*, in the *principal* clause.

Obs. 2.—Some clauses are simply connected without logical or grammatical dependence. They may then be called *coordinate clauses*.

☞ In the following examples of analysis, for the purpose of abbreviation, and in order to furnish the pupil with a ready method of clearly representing, in written exercises, the parts of a sentence and their relations, the *compound clauses* or *members* are marked by Capitals; the *simple clauses*, by numerals; and the *phrases*, by small letters. When these are all written out in their order, the general character of the sentence will be at once exhibited. S. stands for subject; P., for predicate; O., object; Att., attribute; Ad., adjunct.

EXAMPLE.—"The only amaranthine flower on earth is virtue, the only lasting treasure, truth."

Compound declarative sentence, consisting of two coördinate clauses, without a connective.

1. *The only amaranthine flower on earth is virtue;*

2. *The only lasting treasure (is) truth.*

1. Simple declarative clause.

S. *flower*; P. *is*; Att. *virtue*.

Ad. S. *the, only, amaranthine, on earth* (a)

a. Simple adjective phrase.

2. Simple declarative clause.

S. *treasure*; P. *is* (understood); Att. *truth*;

Ad. S. *the, only, lasting*.

EXAMPLE 2.—"If you study diligently in youth, you will be happy and prosperous in manhood."

Compound declarative sentence; consisting of

1. (Leading.) *You will be happy and prosperous in manhood;*

2. (Subordinate.) *You study diligently in youth*; Connective, *if*.

1. Simple declarative clause.

S. *You*; P. *will be*; Att. (compound) *happy and prosperous*;

Ad. P. *in manhood* (a)

a. Simple adverbial phrase.

2. Simple declarative clause.

S. *you*; P. *study*; Ad. P. *diligently, in youth* (b)

b. Simple adverbial phrase.

The clouds of sorrow gathered round his head; and the tempest of hatred roared about his dwelling. The tree was so crooked, that the farmer cut it down. Happiness is more equally divided among mankind, than some suppose. The meeting was so respectable, that the propriety of its decision can hardly be questioned. Science may raise thee to eminence, but religion alone can guide thee to felicity. Cæcrops, who founded Athens, is thought to have been an Egyptian. No man of sense ever took any pains to appear wise; as no honest man ever used any tricks to display his own integrity. A reply is properly a return to an answer: *to answer* and *to reply* are therefore not always equivalent expressions. Others sometimes appear to us more wrong than they are, because we ourselves are not right in judging them.

EXERCISE XVI.—MISCELLANEOUS SENTENCES.

EXAMPLE 1.—"To learn is to proceed from something that is known to something that is unknown."

Complex declarative sentence.

S. *to learn*; P. *is*; Att. *to proceed.....unknown*. (a)

a. Complex phrase.—Prin. part, *to proceed*; Adjuncts, *from something that is known*, (b); *to something that is unknown*, (c)

b. Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, *something*;

Ad. *that is known*. (1)

1. Simple adjective clause.

S. *that*; P. *is*; Att. *known*.

c. Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, *something*;

Ad. *that is unknown*. (2)

2. Simple adjective clause.

EXAMPLE 2.—"I was now so confident of a miraculous supply of food, that I neglected to walk out for my repast, which, after the first day, I expected with an impatience which left me little power of attending to any other object."

Compound declarative sentence.

1. *I was*.....*food* ; A. *I neglected*.....*object* ; connective, *that*.
 1. Simple clause.
 - B. *I* ; *P. was* ; Att. *confident*. Ad. P. *now* ; Ad. Att. *so*, and of a *miraculous supply of food*. (a)
 - a. Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, *supply* ; Ad. *a, miraculous, of food*.
 - A. Compound member.
 2. *I neglected*.....*repast* ; B. *which*.....*object* ; connective, *which*.
 2. Simple clause.
 - B. *I* ; *P. neglected* ; O. *to walk out for my repast*. (b)
 - b. Complex objective phrase.—Prin. part, *to walk* ; Ad. *out, for my repast*.
 - B. Complex member.
 - B. *I* ; *P. expected* ; O. *which*. Ad. P. *after the first day, with an impatience which left me*.....*object*. (c)
 - c. Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, *impatience* ; Ad. *an and which left me little power of attending to any other object*. (3)
 3. Simple adjective clause.
 - B. *which* ; P. *left* ; O. *power* ; Ad. P. *(to) me* ; Ad. O. *little, of attending to any other object*. (d)
 - d. Complex adjective phrase.—Prin. part, *attending* ; Ad. *to any other object*. (e)
 - e. Simple adverbial phrase. Prin. part, *object* ; Ad. *any, other*.

EXAMPLE 3.—“Order is Heaven’s first law ; and this confessed,
Some are, and must be, greater than the rest,
More rich, more wise ; but who infers from hence
That such are happier, shocks all common sense.”

Compound sentence ; consisting of two coördinate members.

- A. *Order*.....*wise* ; B. *who*.....*sense* ; Con. *but*.
 - A. Compound declarative member.
 1. *Order*.....*law* ; C. *this*.....*wise* ; Con. *and*.
 1. Simple declarative clause.
 - B. *order* ; P. *is* ; Att. *law* ; Ad. Att. *heaven’s, first*.
 - C. Compound declarative member.
 2. *Some are, and must be greater, more rich, more wise*,
The rest (are) ; Con. *than* ; *This (being) confessed*, is an independent phrase.
 - B. Complex declarative member.
 - B. *He* (understood) ; P. *shocks* ; O. *sense* ;
Ad. S. *Who infers*.....*happier* ; (D) ; Ad. O. *all, common*.
 - D. Complex adjective member,
 - B. *who* ; P. *infers* ; O. *that such are happier*. (4)
Ad. P. *from hence*.
 4. Simple object clause.
 - B. *such* ; P. *are* ; Att. *happier* ; Con. *that*.

Obs.—It will be perceived from the examples analyzed in this and in the foregoing exercises, that *complex sentences* may be analyzed in two ways ; 1. By dividing the sentence immediately into the principal and dependent clauses, explaining their connection, and then analyzing them separately ; and 2. By treating the sentence as a whole, pointing out the subject, predicate, &c., and analyzing the dependent clause in its proper place, as one of the principal parts, or an adjunct to either. The former method is perhaps preferable for beginners, but for more advanced students should give place to the latter, which is ~~more~~ ^{more} logical and easier for intricate sentences.

Let the pupil analyze orally, or prepare a written analysis of the sentences in the following paragraphs, according to the preceding examples, and parse each word syntactically.

1. It is an empty joy to appear better than you are ; but a great blessing to be what you ought to be.

2. Take counsel of the oracle in thine own heart, for there is not a more faithful monitor than that which speaks in secret there.

3. It is said that some thieves who once robbed a traveller, very gravely charged him with dishonesty for concealing a part of his money.

4. Were a man of pleasure to arrive at the full extent of his several wishes, he must immediately feel himself miserable. It is one species of despair, to have no room to hope for any addition to one's happiness. His following wish must then be, to wish that he had some fresh object for his wishes. This is a strong argument, that the mind and the body were both designed for strenuous activity.

5. Few men, that would cause respect and distance merely, can say anything by which their end will be so effectually answered as by silence.

6. Sometimes, a distant sail, gliding along the edge of the ocean, would be another theme of idle speculation. How interesting this fragment of a world, hastening to rejoin the great mass of existence! What a glorious monument of human invention, that has thus triumphed over wind and wave; has brought the ends of the world into communion; has established an interchange of blessings, pouring into the sterile regions of the north, all the luxuries of the south; has diffused the light of knowledge and the charities of cultivated life; and has thus bound together those scattered portions of the human race, between which nature seemed to have thrown an insurmountable barrier.

7. His story shows how one lapse from duty may counterbalance the merits of a thousand services; how one moment of weakness may mar the beauty of a whole life of virtue; and how important it is for a man, under all circumstances, to be true not merely to others, but to himself.

8. When Education delivered up those for whose happiness she had been so long solicitous, she seemed to expect that they should express some gratitude for her care, or some regret at the loss of that protection which she had hitherto afforded them. But it was easy to discover, by the alacrity which broke out at her departure, that her presence had been long displeasing, and that she had been teaching those who felt in themselves no want of instruction.

9. Disguise thyself as thou wilt, still, Slavery! still thou art a bitter draught; and though thousands in all ages have been made to drink of thee, thou art no less bitter on that account.

10. See, Aspasio, how all is calculated to administer the highest delight to mankind! Those trees and hedges, which skirt the extremities of the landscape, stealing away from their real bulk, and lessening by gentle diminutions, appear like elegant pictures in miniature. Those which occupy the nearer situations, are a set of noble images, swelling upon the eye, in full proportion, and in a variety of graceful attitudes; both of them ornamenting the several apartments of our common abode, with a mixture of delicacy and grandeur.

11. "My friends," said he, "I have seriously considered our manners and our prospects; and I find that we have mistaken our own interest. Let us therefore stop, while to stop is in our power."—They stared awhile in silence, one upon another, and at last drove him away by a general chorus of continued laughter.

12. Vexed at so untimely a disturbance, and disappointed of news from Spain, the duke frowned for a moment; but chagrin soon gave way to mirth, at so singular and ridiculous a combination of circumstances, and yielding to the impulse, he sunk upon the bed in a violent fit of laughter, which was communicated in a moment to the attendants.

13. Let us not confide presumptuously in the sufficiency of a national education; for though ignorance may destroy us, knowledge alone cannot save. Knowledge is, indeed, power; but it is power to kill as well as to make alive, as it is wielded by the madness of the heart, or by moral principle.

14. There is not in this wide world a safe deposit for liberty, but the hearts of patriots, so enlightened as to be able to judge of correct legislation, and so patient and disinterested, as to practice self-denial and self-government for the public good.

15. The Spring—she is a blessed thing!
She is mother of the flowers;
She is the mate of buds and bees,
The partner of their revelries,
Our star of hope through wintry hours.

16. Tell me not in mournful numbers,
Life is but an empty dream!
For the soul is dead that slumbers,
And things are not what they seem.

PART IV.

P R O S O D Y .

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification.

CHAPTER I.—PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing composition, by points, or stops, for the purpose of showing more clearly the sense and relation of the words.

and of noting the different pauses and inflections required in reading.

The following are the principal points, or marks; the Comma [,], the Semicolon [;], the Colon [:], the Period [.] , the Dash [—], the Eroteme, or Note of Interrogation [?], the Ecphoneme, or Note of Exclamation [!], and the Curves, or Marks of Parenthesis [()].

The Comma denotes the shortest pause; the Semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the Colon, a pause double that of the semicolon; and the Period, or Full Stop, a pause double that of the colon. The pauses required by the other four, vary according to the structure of the sentence, and their place in it.

SECTION I.—OF THE COMMA.

The Comma is used to separate those parts of a sentence, which are so nearly connected in sense, as to be only one degree removed from that close connexion which admits no point.

EXAMPLES.

That life is long, which answers life's great end.
The mind, though free, has a governor within itself.
In eternity, days, years, and ages, are nothing.
Good and evil, like heat and cold, differ totally.
To strengthen our virtue, God bids us trust in Him.

SECTION II.—OF THE SEMICOLON.

The Semicolon is used to separate those parts of a compound sentence, which are neither so closely connected as those which are distinguished by the comma, nor so little dependent as those which require the colon.

EXAMPLES.

In the regions inhabited by angelic natures, unmingled felicity forever blooms; joy flows there with a perpetual and abundant stream, nor needs any mound to check its course.

Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom.

SECTION III.—OF THE COLON.

The Colon is used to separate those parts of a compound sentence, which are neither so closely connected as those which are distinguished by the semicolon, nor so little dependent as those which require the period.

EXAMPLES.

Avoid evil doers: in such society, an honest man may become ashamed of himself.

Princes have courtiers, and merchants have partners; the voluptuous have companions, and the wicked have accomplices: none but the virtuous can have friends.

SECTION IV.—OF THE PERIOD.

The Period, or Full Stop, is used to mark an entire and independent sentence, whether simple or compound.

EXAMPLES.

Every deviation from truth, is criminal. Abhor a falsehood. Let your words be ingenuous. Sincerity possesses the most powerful charm.—*Blair*.

SECTION V.—OF THE DASH.

The Dash is used to denote an unexpected pause, of variable length.

EXAMPLES.

"I must inquire into the affair, and if"—"And *if*!" interrupted the farmer.

Here lies the great—false marble, where?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here.—*Young*.

SECTION VI.—OF THE EROTEME.

The Erotème, or Note of Interrogation, is used to designate a question.

EXAMPLES.

In life, can love be bought with gold?
Are friendship's pleasures to be sold?—*Johnson*.

SECTION VII.—OF THE ECPHONEME.

The Ecphoneme, or Note of Exclamation, is used

to denote some strong or sudden emotion of the mind.

EXAMPLES.

O! let me listen to the words of life!—*Thomson*.
Alas! how is that rugged heart forlorn!—*Beattie*.

SECTION VIII.—OF THE CURVES.

The Curves, or Marks of Parenthesis, are used to distinguish a clause or hint that is hastily thrown in between the parts of a sentence to which it does not properly belong.

EXAMPLES.

To others do (the law is not severe)
What to thyself thou wishest to be done.—*Beattie*.
Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)
Virtue alone is happiness below.—*Pope*.

Obs.—The incidental clause should be uttered in a lower tone, and faster than the principal sentence. It always requires, both before and after it, a pause as great as that of a comma, or greater.

SECTION IX.—OF THE OTHER MARKS.

There are also other marks that are occasionally used for various purposes, as follow:—

1. ['] The *Apostrophe* usually denotes either the possessive case of a noun, or the elision of one or more letters of a word; as, *The girl's* regard to her *parents'* advice;—'gà'n, lov'd, e'en, thro'; for *began, loved, even, through*.
2. [-] The *Hyphen* connects the parts of compound words; as, *ever-living*. Placed at the end of a line, it shows that one or more syllables of a word are carried forward to the next line.
3. ["] The *Dieresis*, placed over the latter of two vowels, shows that they are not a diphthong; as, *aërial*.
4. ['] The *Acute Accent* marks the syllable which requires the principal stress in pronunciation; as, *équal, equal'ity*. It is sometimes used in opposition to the grave accent, to distinguish a close or short vowel, or to denote the rising inflection of the voice.
5. [˘] The *Grave Accent* is used, in opposition to the acute, to distinguish an open or long vowel, or to denote the falling inflection of the voice.
6. [ˆ] The *Circumflex* generally denotes either the broad sound of *a*, or an unusual and long sound given to some other vowel; as in *colât, all, heir, machine, move, bull*.
7. [ː] The *Breve* is used to denote either a close vowel, or a syllable of short quantity; as, *räven, to devour*.

8. [-] The *Macron* is used to denote either an open vowel or a syllable of long quantity; as, *raven*, a bird.

9. [—] or [***] The *Ellipsis* denotes the omission of some letters or words; as, *K—g* for *king*.

10. [^] The *Caret* shows where to insert words that have been accidentally omitted.

11. [{}] The *Brace* serves to unite a triplet, or to connect several terms with something to which they are all related.

12. [§] The *Section* marks the smaller divisions of a book or chapter; and, with the help of numbers, serves to abridge references.

13. [¶] The *Paragraph* (chiefly used in the Bible) denotes the commencement of a new subject. The parts of discourse which are called paragraphs, are, in general, sufficiently distinguished, by beginning a new line, and carrying the first word a little forwards or backwards.

14. [“”] The *Guillemets*, or *Quotation Points*, distinguish words that are taken from some other author or speaker. A quotation within a quotation is marked with single points; which, when both are employed, are placed within the others.

15. [[]] The *Crotchets*, or *Brackets*, generally inclose some correction or explanation, or the subject to be explained; as, “He [the speaker] was of a different opinion.”

16. [☞] The *Index*, or *Hand*, points out something remarkable.

17. [*] The *Asterisk*, [†] the *Obelisk*, [‡] the *Double Dagger*, and [||] the *Parallels*, refer to marginal notes. The letters of the alphabet, or the numerical figures, may be used for the same purpose.

18. [***] The *Asterism*, or *Three Stars*, a sign not very often used, is placed before a long or general note, to mark it as a note, without giving it a particular reference.

19. [ç] The *Cedilla* is a mark which is sometimes set under a letter to show that its sound, in the given word, is soft; as in *façade*, where the *c* sounds as *s*.

CHAPTER II.—UTTERANCE.

Utterance is the art of vocal expression. It includes the principles of pronunciation and elocution.

SECTION I.—OF PRONUNCIATION.

Pronunciation, as distinguished from elocution, is the utterance of words taken separately.

Pronunciation requires a knowledge of the just

powers of the letters in all their combinations, and of the force and seat of the accent.

1. The *Just Powers* of the letters are those sounds which are given to them by the best readers.

2. *Accent* is the peculiar stress which we lay upon some particular syllable of a word, whereby that syllable is distinguished from and above the rest; as, *gram'-mar*, *gram-ma'-ri-an*.

Every word of more than one syllable, has one of its syllables accented.

When the word is long, for the sake of harmony or distinctness, we often give a secondary, or less forcible accent, to an other syllable; as, to the last of *tem'-per-a-ture*, and to the second of *in-dem-ni-fi-ca-tion*.

A full and open pronunciation of the long vowel sounds, a clear articulation of the consonants, a forcible and well placed accent, and a distinct utterance of the unaccented syllables, distinguish the elegant speaker.

SECTION II.—OF ELOCUTION.

Elocution is the utterance of words that are arranged into sentences, and that form discourse.

Elocution requires a knowledge, and right application, of emphasis, pauses, inflections, and tones.

1. *Emphasis* is the peculiar stress which we lay upon some particular word or words in a sentence, which are thereby distinguished from the rest as being more especially significant.

2. *Pauses* are cessations in utterance, which serve equally to relieve the speaker, and to render language intelligible and pleasing. The duration of the pauses should be proportionate to the degree of connexion between the parts of the discourse.

3. *Inflections* are those peculiar variations of the human voice, by which a continuous sound is made to pass from one note, key, or pitch, into an other. The passage of the voice from a lower to a higher or shriller note, is called the *rising inflection*;—the passage of the voice from a higher to a lower or graver note, is called the *falling inflection*.

These two opposite inflections may be heard in the following examples: 1. *The rising*, "Do you mean to go?"—2. *The falling*, "When will you go?"

Obs.—*Questions* that may be answered by *yes* or *no*, require the rising inflection: those that demand any other answer, must be uttered with the falling inflection.

Tones are those modulations of the voice, which depend upon the feelings of the speaker. They are what Sheridan denominates "the language of emotions." And it is of the utmost importance that they be natural, unaffected, and rightly adapted to the subject and to the occasion; for upon them, in a great measure, depends all that is pleasing or interesting in elocution.



CHAPTER III.—FIGURES.

A figure, in grammar, is an intentional deviation from the ordinary spelling, formation, construction, or application of words. There are, accordingly, figures of Orthography, figures of Etymology, figures of Syntax, and figures of Rhetoric. When figures are judiciously employed, they both strengthen and adorn expression. They occur more frequently in poetry than in prose; and several of them are merely poetic licenses.

SECTION I.—FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

A figure of Orthography is an intentional deviation from the ordinary or true spelling of a word.

The principal figures of Orthography are two; namely, *Mimesis* and *Archa-ism*.

1. *Mimesis* is a ludicrous imitation of some mistake or mispronunciation of a word, in which the error is mimicked by a false spelling, or the taking of one word for another; as, "*Maister*, says he, have you any *very* good *weal* in your *vället*?"—*Columbian Orator*, p. 292. "*Ay*, he was *porn* at Monmouth, Captain Gower."—*Shak*. "I will *description* the matter to you, if you be *capacity* of it."—*Id*.

"*Perdigious*! I can hardly stand."—*Lloyd*.

2. An *Archaism* is a word or phrase expressed according to ancient usage, and not according to our modern orthography; as, "*Neve grene chese of smalle clammynes comfortethe a hotte stomake*."—T. PAYNEL: *Tooke's Diversions*, ii, 132.

"With him was rev'rend Contemplation *pight*,
Bow-bent with *eld*, his beard of snowy hue."—*Beattie*.

SECTION II.—FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

A figure of Etymology is an intentional deviation from the ordinary formation of a word.

The principal figures of Etymology are eight; namely, *A-phor-e-sis*, *Pro-s-the-sis*, *Syn-co-pe*, *A-poc-o-pe*, *Par-a-go-ga*, *Di-ar-e-sis*, *Syn-er-e-sis*, and *Tne-sis*.

1. *Apharesis* is the elision of some of the initial letters of a word; as, 'gainst, 'gan, 'neath,—for *against*, *began*, *beneath*.

2. *Prosthesis* is the prefixing of an expletive syllable to a word; as, adown, appaid, bestrown, evanished,—for *down*, *paid*, *strown*, *vanished*.

3. *Syncope* is the elision of some of the middle letters of a word; as, med'cine, for *medicine*; e'en, for *even*; o'er, for *over*.

4. *Apocope* is the elision of some of the final letters of a word; as, tho', for *though*; th', for *the*; t'other, for *the other*.

5. *Paragoge* is the annexing of an expletive syllable to a word; as, withouten, for *without*; my deary, for *my dear*.

6. *Dieresis* is the separating of two vowels that might form a diphthong; as, coöperate, not *cooperate*; orthoëpy, not *orthopy*.

7. *Synæresis* is the sinking of two syllables into one; as, seest, for *seest*; tack'd, for *tack-ed*.

Obs.—When a vowel is entirely suppressed in pronunciation, (whether retained in writing or not,) the consonants connected with it, fall into an other syllable: thus, *loved* or *lov'd*, *lovest* or *lov'st*, are monosyllables, except in solemn discourse, in which the *e* is made vocal.

8. *Tmesis* is the inserting of a word between the parts of a compound; as, "On which side soever;"—"To us ward;"—"To God ward."—*Bible*.

SECTION III.—FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

A figure of Syntax is an intentional deviation from the ordinary construction of words.

The principal figures of Syntax are five; namely, *El-lip-sis*, *Ple-onasm*, *Syl-lep-sis*, *En-ai-la-ge*, and *Hy-per-ba-ton*.

1. *Ellipsis* is the omission of some words which are necessary to complete the construction, but not necessary to convey the meaning; as, "Who did this?" "I [*did it*]." Such words are said to be *understood*; because they are received as belonging to the sentence, though they are not uttered.

2. *Pleonasm* is the introduction of superfluous words. This figure is allowable only, when in animated discourse, it abruptly introduces an emphatic word, or repeats an idea to impress it more strongly; as, *He* that hath ears to hear, let him hear!"—"I know thee *who thou art*." A pleonasm is sometimes impressive and elegant; but an unemphatic repetition of the same idea, is one of the worst faults of bad writing.

3. *Syllepsis* is agreement formed according to the figurative sense of a word, or the mental conception of the thing spoken of, and not according to the literal or common use of the term; it is therefore, in general, connected with some figure of rhetoric: as, "The *Word* was made flesh, and dwelt among us, and we beheld *his* glory."—*John*, i, 14. "Then Philip went down to the *city* of Samaria, and preached Christ unto *them*."—*Acts*, viii, 5. "While Evening draws *her* crimson curtain round."

4. *Enallage* is the use of one part of speech, or of one modification for an other. This figure borders closely upon solecism.* It is a license sparingly indulged in poetry, and fashion has given it at least one form in prose; as,

"You know that *you* are Brutus that *speak* this."—*Shak.*

"They fall *successive* [ly,] and *successive* [ly] rise."—*Pope.*

"Than *whom* [who] none higher sat."—*Milton.*

"So furious was that onset's shock,
Destruction's gates at once *unlock*."—*Hogg.*

5. *Hyperbaton* is the transposition of words; as, "He wanders *earth around*,"—"Rings the world with the vain stir." This figure is much employed in poetry. A judicious use of it confers harmony, variety, strength, and vivacity, upon composition. But care should be taken lest it produce ambiguity or obscurity.

SECTION IV.—FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

A figure of Rhetoric is an intentional deviation from the ordinary application of words.

Numerous departures from perfect simplicity of diction occur in almost every kind of composition. They are mostly founded on some similitude or relation of things, which, by the power of imagination, is rendered conducive to ornament or illustration.

The principal figures of Rhetoric are fourteen; namely, *Sim'-i-le*, *Met'-a-phor*, *Al'-le-go-ry*, *Me-ton'y-my*, *Syn-ec'-do-che*, *Hy-per'-bo-le*, *Vis'-ion*, *A-pos'-tro-phe*, *Per-son'-i-fi-ca'-tion*, *Er-o-té-sis*, *Ec-pho-né-sis*, *An-tith'-e-sis*, *Oli'-max*, and *I-ro-ny*.

1. A *Simile* is a simple and express comparison; and is generally introduced by *like*, *as*, or *so*; as,

"At first, *like thunder's distant tone*,
The rattling din came rolling on."—*Hogg.*

2. A *Metaphor* is a figure that expresses the resemblance of two objects, by applying either the name, or some attribute, adjunct, or action, of the one, directly to the other; as,

"His eye was *morning's brightest ray*."—*Hogg.*
"Beside him *sleeps* the warrior's bow."—*Id.*

3. An *Allegory* is a continued narration of fictitious events designed to represent and illustrate important realities. Thus the Psalmist represents the Jewish nation under the symbol of a *vine*: "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt: thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedest room before it, and didst

* Deviations of this kind are, in general, to be considered solecisms; otherwise the rules of grammar would be of no use or authority. *Despauter*, an ancient Latin grammarian, gave an improper latitude to this figure, under the name of *Antiptosis*; and *Bechourt* and others extended it still further. But *Sanctius* says, "*Antiptosi grammaticorum nihil imperitius, quod signum si esset verum, frustra quaeretur, quem casum verba referent.*" And the *Messieurs De Port Royal* reject the figure altogether. There are, however, some changes of this kind, which the grammarians are not competent to condemn, though they do not accord with the ordinary principles of construction.

cause it to take deep root; and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars."—*Psalms*, lxxx, 8.

4. A *Metonymy* is a change of names. It is founded on some such relation as that of *cause* and *effect*, of *subject* and *adjunct*, of *place* and *inhabitant*, of *container* and *thing contained*, or of *sign* and *thing signified*: as, "God is our *salvation*;" i. e., *Saviour*.—"He was the *sign* of her secret soul;" i. e., the *youth* she loved.—"They smote the *city*;" i. e., *citizens*.—"My son, give me thy *heart*;" i. e., *affection*.—"The *sceptre* shall not depart from Judah;" i. e., *kingly power*.

5. *Synecdoche* is the naming of a whole for a part, or of a part for the whole; as, "This *roof* [i. e., house] protects you."—"Now the *year* [i. e., summer] is beautiful."—*Thomson*.

6. *Hyperbole* is extravagant exaggeration, in which the imagination is indulged beyond the sobriety of truth; as,

"The sky *shrunk upward with unusual dread*,
And trembling Tiber *div'd beneath his bed*."—*Dryden*.

7. *Vision*, or *Imagery*, is a figure by which the speaker represents the objects of his imagination, as actually before his eyes, and present to his senses; as,

"Andromache—thy griefs I dread;
I see thee trembling, weeping, captive led."—*Pope*.

8. *Apostrophe* is a turning from the regular course of the subject, into an animated address; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory. O Death! where is thy sting? O Grave! where is thy victory?"—1 *Cor.*, xv, 54.

9. *Personification* is a figure by which, in imagination, we ascribe intelligence and personality to unintelligent beings or abstract qualities; as,

"Lo, steel-clad *War* his gorgeous standard rears!"—*Rogers*.
"Hark! *Truth* proclaims, thy triumphs cease!"—*Id.*

10. *Erotesis* is a figure in which the speaker adopts the form of interrogation, not to express a doubt, but in general confidently to assert the reverse of what is asked; as, "Hast thou an arm like God? or canst thou thunder with a voice like him?"—*Job*, xl, 9.

11. *Ecphegesis* is a pathetic exclamation, denoting some violent emotion of the mind; as, "O Liberty! O sound once delightful to every Roman ear! O sacred privilege of Roman citizenship!—once sacred—now trampled upon!"—*Cicero*.

12. *Antithesis* is a placing of things in opposition to heighten their effect by contrast; as,

"Contrasted faults through all their manners reign;
Though *poor, luxurious*; though *submissive, vain*;
Though *grave, yet trifling*; *zealous, yet untrue*;
And, e'en in penance, *planning sins anew*."—*Goldsmith*.

13. *Climax* is a figure in which the sense is made to advance by successive steps, to rise gradually to what is more and more important and interesting, or to descend to what is more and more

minute and particular; as, "Tribulation worketh patience; and patience, experience; and experience, hope."—*Rom.*, v, 8.

14. *Irony* is a figure in which the speaker sneeringly utters the direct reverse of what he intends shall be understood; as, "We have, to be sure, great reason to believe the modest man would not ask him for a debt, when he pursues his life."—*Cicero*.

CHAPTER IV.—VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the art of arranging words into lines of correspondent length, so as to produce harmony by the regular alternation of syllables differing in quantity.

SECTION I.—OF QUANTITY.

The *Quantity* of a syllable, is the relative portion of time occupied in uttering it. In poetry, every syllable is considered to be either long or short. A long syllable is reckoned to be equal to two short ones.

Obs. 1.—The quantity of a syllable does not depend on the sound of the vowel or diphthong, but principally, on the degree of accentual force with which the syllable is uttered, whereby a greater or less portion of time is employed. The open vowel sounds are those which are the most easily protracted, yet they often occur in the shortest and feeblest syllables.

Obs. 2.—Most monosyllables are variable, and may be made either long or short, as suits the rhythm. In words of greater length, the accented syllable is always long; and a syllable immediately before or after that which is accented, is always short.

SECTION II.—OF RHYME.

Rhyme is a similarity of sound, between the last syllables of different lines. *Blank verse* is verse without rhyme.

Obs.—The principal rhyming syllables are always long. Double rhyme adds one short syllable; triple rhyme, two. Such syllables are redundant in iambic and anapestic verses.

SECTION III.—OF POETIC FEET.

A *line of poetry* consists of successive combinations of syllables, called *feet*. A *poetic foot*, in English, consists either of two or of three syllables.

The principal English feet are the *Iambus*, the *Trochee*, the *Anapest*, and the *Dactyl*.

1. The *Iambus*, or *Iamb*, is a poetic foot consisting of a short syllable and a long one; as, *betray*, *confess*.

2. The *Trochee* is a poetic foot consisting of a long syllable and a short one; as, *hateful*, *pettish*.

3. The *Anapest* is a poetic foot consisting of two short syllables and one long one; as, *contravene*, *acquiesce*.

4. The *Dactyl* is a poetic foot consisting of one long syllable and two short ones; as, *labourer*, *possible*.

We have, accordingly, FOUR KINDS of verse, or poetic measure; *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, *Anapestic*, and *Dactylic*.

SECTION IV.—OF SCANNING.

Scanning, or *Scansion*, is the dividing of verses into the feet which compose them.

I. In *Iambic verse*, the stress is laid on the even syllables, and the odd ones are short.

EXAMPLES.

"För präise | töo deår-ly löv'd | ör wårn-ly söught,

Enfee-|bles all | inter-|nal strength | of thought."

"With sol-|ëmn åd-|örå-tiön döwn | they cåst

Their crowns | inwove | with an-|arant | and gold."

II. In *Trochaic verse*, the stress is laid on the odd syllables, and the even ones are short. Single-rhymed trochaic omits the final short syllable, that it may end with a long one. This kind of verse is the same as iambic would be without the initial short syllable.

EXAMPLES.

"Röund å | höly | cålm díf-füsing,

Love of | peace and | lonely | musing."

Single Rhyme.

"Röstlöss | mörtåls | töil för | nåught;

Bliss in | vain from | earth is | sought."

III. In *Anapestic verse*, the stress is laid on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapestic line, may be an iambus.

EXAMPLE.

"At the clöse | öf the döy, | when the hām-lët is still,

And mor-|tals the sweets | of forget-|fulness prove,

When nought | but the tor-|rent is heard | on the hill,

And nought | but the night-|ingale's song | in the grove."

IV. In *Dactylic verse*, the stress is laid on the first, the fourth, the seventh, and the tenth syllable. Full Dactylic forms triple rhyme. When one of the final short syllables is omitted, the rhyme is double; when both, single. Dactylic with single rhyme, is the same as anapestic would be without its initial short syllables. Dactylic measure is rather uncommon; and, when employed, is seldom perfectly regular.

EXAMPLE.

Hōly ānd | pūre āre thē | plēasures ōf | piēty,
Drāwn frōm thē | fōuntain ōf | mērcy ānd | lōve;
Endless, ex|-haustless, ex|-empt frōm an|tiety,
Rising un|-earthly ānd | soaring a|-bōve.

Obs.—The more pure these several kinds of poetic measure are preserved, the more exact and complete is the chime of the verse. But, to avoid disagreeable monotony, the poets generally indulge some variety; not so much, however, as to confound the drift of the rhythmical pulsations.

APPENDIX.

A KEY

TO THE

EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

[To task the learner, is right; to puzzle him, is wrong. All embarrassment is a bar to progress; all stopping or faltering in rehearsal, is a disagreeable waste of time. These, therefore, should be prevented as fully as they can be; and the reciter, if he be in a school-class, should be prompted to go always through his part without pause, unhesitating, and manlike utterance. Instruction and exercise, in due rotation, are the young grammarian's carriage-wheels, both fore and hind; but his progress in the course, like that of him who rides the velocipede, depends mainly on his own efforts. If any one need this Key, let him use it; those who do not need it, will not care to turn to it.

The examples of False Syntax, of which the following sentences are the full amended readings, should be corrected *orally* by the pupil, according to the formulæ which are given in the fifth chapter of Part Third; and afterwards these corrections may be used as examples for *parsing*, if more texts for that sort of exercise be desired. The first example of each lesson is not inserted here, because it is fully corrected in the formulæ.]

LESSON I.—UNDER RULE II.—NOMINATIVES.

2. *He* that loiters by the way, may be belated. 3. *They* that labour, should be rewarded. 4. *We* who are spared, ought to be thankful. 5. You and *I* are equally concerned. 6. Are not *thou* and *he* related? 7. My brother is older than *I*. 8. He cannot read so well as *thou*. 9. Who fastened the door? *I*. 10. *Who* do you suppose did it?

LESSON II.—UNDER RULE III.—APPOSITION.

2. That was the tailoress, *she* that made my clothes. 3. I saw your friend, *him* that was here last winter. 4. Dennis, the gardener, *he* that gave me the tulips, has promised me a piony.

LESSON III.—UNDER RULE V.—PRONOUNS.

2. Every one must judge of *his* own feelings. 3. We may be displeased with a person without hating *him*. 4. I poured water *on* the embers to quench *them*. 5. Ask her for the scissors, and bring *them* to me. 6. He had sown the oats, and *they* had already sprung up.

LESSON IV.—UNDER RULE VI.—PRONOUNS.

2. *The* people will not relinquish *their* rights. 3. The clergy

had declared *their* intention. 4. The party disagreed among *themselves*. 5. The committee were unanimous, and this is *their* award. 6. The company then renewed *their* claims.

LESSON V.—UNDER RULE VII.—PRONOUNS.

2. Avoid lightness and frivolity: *they* are allied to folly. 3. Truth and honesty cannot fail of *their* reward. 4. Learning and good sense always adorn *their* possessor. 5. Banish envy and strife, lest *they* utterly destroy your peace. 6. Cherish love and unity: *they* are the life of society.

LESSON VI.—UNDER RULE VIII.—PRONOUNS.

2. Can justice or truth change *its* nature? 3. One or the other must relinquish *his* claim. 4. Neither the lion nor the tiger will bow *his* neck to the yoke. 5. The horse or the ox will lend thee *his* strength. 6. Neither my father nor my master, would *the* *his* consent.

LESSON VII.—UNDER RULE IX.—VERBS.

2. Appearances *are* often deceptive. 3. The propriety of such restrictions *is* doubtful. 4. There *are* windows on three sides of the room. 5. Thou *seest* the difficulties with which I am surrounded. 6. What *do* all my exertions avail?

LESSON VIII.—UNDER RULE X.—VERBS.

2. The nobility *were* assured that he would not interpose. 3. The committee *have* attended to their appointment. 4. The majority *were* disposed to adopt the measure. 5. All the world *are* spectators of your conduct. 6. Blessed *are* the people that know the joyful sound.

LESSON IX.—UNDER RULE XI.—VERBS.

2. Temperance ~~and~~ exercise *preserve* health. 3. My love and affection towards thee *remain* unaltered. 4. Wealth, honour, and happiness, *forsake* the indolent. 5. My flesh and my heart *fail*. 6. In all his works, there *are* sprightliness and vigour.

LESSON X.—UNDER RULE XII.—VERBS.

2. No axe or hammer *has* ever awakened an echo here. 3. What the heart or the imagination *dictates*, flows readily. 4. Neither authority nor analogy *supports* such an opinion. 5. Either ability or inclination *was* wanting. 6. He comes—nor want nor cold *his* course *delays*.

LESSON XI.—UNDER RULE XIII.—VERBS.

2. Does not he waste his time, and *neglect* his lessons? 3. Did not she send, and *give* you this information? 4. Their honours are departing, and *coming* to an end. 5. He had retired to his farm, and *he* appeared to be happy there. 6. He *was* elected to the office, but *he* would not serve.

LESSON XII.—UNDER RULE XX.—OBJECTIVES.

2. *Thee* only have I chosen. 3. *Whom* shall we send on this errand? 4. My father allowed my brother and *me* to accompany him. 5. *Him* that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply. 6. *Whom* should I meet but my old friend!

LESSON XIII.—UNDER RULE XXI.—SAME CASES.

2. We thought it was *thou*. 3. I would act the same part, if I were *he*. 4. It could not have been *she*. 5. It is not *I*, that he is angry with. 6. They believed it to be *me*.

LESSON XIV.—UNDER RULE XXII.—OBJECTIVES.

2. Let that remain a secret between you and *me*. 3. I lent the book to some one, I know not *whom*. 4. Let no quarrel occur among *us* three fellows. 5. *Whom* did he inquire for? *Thee*. 6. From *him* that is needy, turn not away.

LESSON XV.—UNDER RULE XXIII.—INFINITIVES.

2. Please to excuse my son's absence. 3. Cause every man to go out from *me*. 4. Forbid them to enter the garden. 5. Do you not perceive it to move? 6. Allow others to discover your merit. 7. He was seen to go in at that gate.

LESSON XVI.—UNDER RULE XXIV.—INFINITIVES.

2. I felt a chilling sensation *creep* over me. 3. I have heard him *mention* the subject. 4. Bid the boys *come* in immediately. 5. I dare *say* he has not got home yet. 6. Let no rash promise *be made*.

LESSON XVII.—UNDER RULE XXV.—NOM. ABSOLUTE.

2. *I* being young, they deceived me. 3. *They* refusing to comply, I withdrew. 4. The child is lost; and *I*, whither shall I go? 5. *Thou* being present, he would not tell what he knew. 6. Arise, and gird thyself, O *thou* that sleepest! 7. O wretched *we*! shut from the light of hope! 8. "*Thou* too! Brutus, my son!" cried Cæsar overcome.

9. "But *he*, the chieftain of them all,
His sword hangs rusting on the wall."—*W. Scott*.

LESSON XVIII.—UNDER RULE XXVI.—SUBJUNCTIVES.

2. I shall walk out in the afternoon, unless it *rain*. 3. If thou *felt* as I do, we should soon decide. 4. I knew thou *wast* not slow to hear. 5. Let him take heed lest he *fall*. 6. If thou *cast* me off, I shall be miserable. 7. I believed, whatever *were* the issue, all would be well. 8. If he *were* an impostor, he must *have* been detected.

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LESSON XII.—UNDER RULE XX

2. *These* only have I chosen. 3. *Whom* errand? 4. My father allowed my brother him. 5. *Him* that is idle and mischievous. *Whom* should I meet but my old friend!

LESSON XIII.—UNDER RULE Y

2. We thought it was *thou*. 3. I were *he*. 4. It could not have been angry with. 6. They believe

LESSON XIV

2. Let that

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